A REPORT OF THE

STANFORD SOCIAL EDUCATION

INVESTIGATION

with the editorial collaboration of ROBERT N. BUSH,
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Education

For Social Competence

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL

SOCIAL STUDIES

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TO GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER, who died a martyr
to peace while working on the development of
UNESCO shortly after collaborating in the writ-
ing of the Preface for this book.

PREFACE

THIS volume is a part of the report of the Stanford Social Education
Investigation, which, as is described in Chapter 1, was established in
1939 in the Stanford University School of Education under a grant
from the General Education Board. In this investigation, 112 teachers
and 31 administrators from ten school systems in the western part of
the United States joined in a five-year study of the theory and practice
of social education. The staff of the Investigation included Robert
N. Bush, Lavone A. Hanna, Edward A. Krug, and the undersigned,
who served as co-directors. Mrs. Mathilda McCulloch Lucy and Mrs.
Ethel Hathaway were the secretaries of the project and contributed
materially to its work and the preparation of its reports. Others were
associated with the Investigation for varying periods of time as fellows,
resource leaders, and workshop staff members.

The Investigation provided extensive opportunity for coöperative
thinking and planning. While the staff of each center was encouraged
to develop its own experimental program, proposals, activities, and
conclusions were subjected to consideration by the entire group.
A major part of the workshop held in the summer of 1942 was devoted
to the study and discussion of basic issues in social education and the
development of common conclusions and operating principles based
on the work of the previous three years. In addition each school sub-
mitted reports, samples of work produced, and other materials. Staff
members visited schools, observed classes, and consulted with partici-
pants during the regular school year and prepared reports based on
their observations.

All the materials and thinking that developed out of the Investi-
gation have been drawn upon extensively in the writing of the three
volumes prepared for publication. In addition to this volume, these are
(1) *Leadership in Social Education: A Guide to In-Service Education
for Teachers* by Grayson N. Kefauver and Edward A. Krug, a forth-
coming publication which contains a description of the in-service edu-
cation techniques used in the Investigation and the stories of the ten
coöperating school systems written by local participants in each system,
and (2) the report of a study of pupil-teacher relationships in the class-
room to be published under the authorship of Grayson N. Kefauver
and Robert N. Bush.

In this volume, *Education for Social Competence,* the authors have presented their best thinking and conclusions concerning the characteristics of a desirable program of social education. The experience of the Stanford Social Education Investigation has served as an important source of materials in its preparation, but the authors also have drawn extensively on the work of others and on their own total experience in the field. The purpose of this volume is to serve as a basic text or guide in social education for both beginning and experienced teachers, supervisors, curriculum directors, and high-school principals. The content will be of special interest to the secondary-school social-studies teacher and to teachers of general-education and core courses, but it is hoped that it also will be of assistance to all teachers interested in making their subjects contribute more directly to the social education of youth. An attempt has been made to provide an orientation to the whole area of social education and to deal concretely with all the major aspects of curriculum and instruction involved in education for social competence.

The assistance of many people is much appreciated by the authors and editorial collaborators. Special appreciation is accorded to the General Education Board for its generous support, to Flora M. Rhind for her many helpful suggestions and sympathetic understanding of the problems of experimentation in education, and to Viola L. Quillen for her contributions to the preparation of this volume. To these and to numerous others who assisted in many ways, we accord our thanks, while at the same time assuming full responsibility for the substance and form of the reports as they are published.

In an atomic age the task of social education is of crucial importance. Men must learn to live together in peace and to use the tools of science to build a better world. We hope that the experiences of the Stanford Social Education Investigation will assist in this task.

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GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER
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*Co-directors of the Stanford
Social Education Investigation*

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Stanford University

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THE HISTORY AND RÔLE OF SOCIAL-STUDIES INSTRUCTION

Civic Education in a Democracy

TWICE in twenty-five years the citizens of the United States have partici-
pated in the ordeal of a global war, and during the inter-bellum period
they experienced the most severe depression in American history. Yet
the fabric of American culture has survived. Democracy has not only
been maintained but has even acquired new meaning, new strength,
and new resolution—a resolution that wars shall end and peace be
secured; that economic well-being and high standards of living shall be
maintained and increased; and that the values of democracy shall be
more broadly achieved in a wider equality of opportunity, greater
mutual respect, and a fuller realization of the age-old ideal of the
brotherhood of man.

The realization of these goals desired by the American people re-
quires a high level of civic competence. The development of this com-
petence is a major obligation of public education and, especially, of
social-studies teachers. The importance of civic education in a democ-
racy has long been recognized. The men who established the United
States of America knew that a government based on the sovereignty
of the people depended for its success on educated citizens. The support
of education by such founders of the United States as Jefferson, Frank-
lin, and Madison is well known, and Washington in his Farewell
Address said:

> Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the
> general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a govern-
> ment gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should
> be enlightened.[1]

The soundness of Washington's advice concerning education has
been well-substantiated by the history of the United States. In approach-
ing a consideration of the education of the young citizen, it is fruitful
to trace briefly the development of social-studies instruction within
the framework of American culture.

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Brief History of Social Education in the United States to 1890

During the early 1800's the social studies began to become an established part of the secondary-school curriculum. History had been offered in a few private schools and academies before the Revolution, but the first textbook in American history did not appear until 1787. Then, as the nation became established on the firm foundation of the Constitution during Washington's administration, as political conflict developed between the Federalists and Jeffersonian Democratic-Republicans, and as nationalism intensified during and after the War of 1812, interest in American history quickened. Several texts were published in the early 1800's; and when the first high school, then known as the English Classical School, was established in Boston in 1821, both United States and general history were included in the program of studies. In 1827 the teaching of United States history was established by law in Massachusetts in towns, cities, or districts of five hundred families and over; and before the Civil War, five states had laws requiring the teaching of history in the public schools.[2]

Material on civil government, or *civics*, as it later came to be known, was introduced into the secondary school concurrently with history. A civics text was published as early as 1797 with the express purpose of checking the spread of Jeffersonian democracy by teaching young people the sound principles of government on which Federalism was based. Courses based on the United States Constitution and other aspects of government were studied in many schools, and by 1860 there were at least forty-five textbooks available for use below the college level in the area of "Constitution, Government, and Law."[3]

Social-studies instruction was largely haphazard before the Civil War. There were no widely accepted courses of study, and the content was determined by the textbooks, which were often inaccurate and uninteresting. Following the Civil War, national leadership in education became more pronounced. The National Teachers' Association, later to become the National Education Association, had been organized in 1857. Then, as the nation became more industrialized, urbanized, and centralized during the latter part of the nineteenth century, elementary, secondary, and higher education were extended. The study of the social sciences in colleges and universities became systematized under the leadership of such organizations as the American Historical Association, and the teaching of the social studies in American secondary schools increased rapidly and began to assume a national pattern. This pattern was shaped by a number of important committee reports issued by the National Education Association and the American Historical Association.

The Committee of Ten

The first of the national committees which helped to shape the social-studies program was the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association, appointed in 1892 to study the programs of secondary schools and college-entrance requirements and to make appropriate recommendations for the improvement of secondary education. This committee, at its first meeting, decided to hold a series of conferences in each of the major subject areas. The Conference on History, Civil Government, and Political Economy met in December 1892 and included such outstanding scholars as James Harvey Robinson, Albert Bushnell Hart, and Woodrow Wilson. The Committee of Ten included a university president, three university history professors, three political science professors, two high-school principals, and one headmaster of a private school. It recommended a historical course in the public schools that would include two years of biography and mythology in the elementary school to be followed by:

Grade VII......... American history and civil government

Grade VIII........ Greek and Roman history with their Oriental backgrounds

Grade IX.......... French history taught so as to demonstrate the general movement of medieval and modern history

Grade X........... English history also taught in a manner to elucidate medieval and modern history

Grade XI.......... American history

Grade XII......... A special period studied intensively and civil government[4]

A more limited six-year program was proposed for those schools that could not adopt the longer program. The report of the Committee of Ten had considerable influence. In the decade from 1894 to 1904 there was a marked increase in the teaching of American history and a considerable increase in the offering of English history; and some high schools offered French history and the intensive study of a selected historical period for the first time. Many schools, however, did not follow the report, for during the same period there was a pronounced increase in the offering of general history, which had not been recommended by the Committee of Ten.[5]

The Committee of Seven and the Committee of Five of the American Historical Association

An even more influential committee in shaping the pattern of social-studies instruction in the United States was the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association, appointed in 1896. After a long

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period of study and deliberation, it made its report in 1898.[6] The committee included such able historians as Andrew C. McLaughlin, author of the report, Herbert Baxter Adams, Albert Bushnell Hart, and Charles H. Haskins. Questionnaires were sent to American schools to determine current practice, and studies were made of the teaching of history in selected foreign countries. The report, based on the results of these studies and on the committee's own deliberations, recommended a four-year program of history in American high schools, with the following grade-level divisions:

Grade IX.......... Ancient history, with special emphasis on Greece and
                   Rome, 800, 814, or 843 A.D.
Grade X........... Medieval and modern European history
Grade XI.......... English history
Grade XII......... American history and civil government

The committee also made an excellent statement of the values of historical study, and it offered suggestions concerning methods of study, materials, and college-entrance requirements. The effects of this report were tremendous. Textbooks and syllabi were published on the basis of its recommendations. High schools reorganized their programs of study and colleges adapted their entrance requirements to it. Tryon, writing in the middle of the 1930's, said:

For at least two decades after its appearance, high-school courses in history in the United States were almost 100 per cent dictated by it. In fact even today, more than a generation after the publication of the report, its influence is dominant in probably one-third of the high schools of the country.[7]

In 1907 the American Historical Association appointed the Committee of Five to investigate dissatisfactions expressed regarding the program outlined in the report of 1899. The report of this committee had less effect than the report of the Committee of Seven, but its influence was felt in the shifting of emphasis from ancient and medieval to modern history. The committee recommended ancient history to 800 A.D. in Grade IX; English history to 1760, including European history and American colonial history, in Grade X; modern history, with special attention to English history since 1760, in Grade XI; and American history and government treated as separate courses in Grade XII.

The Committee on Social Studies

The 1890's and early 1900's were marked by many developments in the theory and practice of education, in psychology and the social sciences, and in American culture generally. Education was becoming professionalized, and its leading thinkers were beginning to exert a major influence in the shaping of the school program. William James,

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John Dewey, and Edward Thorndike were challenging vigorously such psychological ideas as mental discipline and the universality of transfer. Dewey and Francis Parker were urging a more functional and democratic education and were demonstrating their ideas in experimental schools. Around 1910 the junior high school came into existence, and the 6–3–3 plan of organization began to replace the 8–4 plan in many cities. Manual training, domestic science, and other practical vocational and avocational courses were added to the school program. Educators became concerned about social efficiency and the adaptation of the individual to city life. Men such as James Harvey Robinson were establishing the "New History," and sociology became a recognized area of research and study.

At the same time the United States was witnessing the development of increased industrialism and urbanization, the growth of the great corporation, the flood tide of immigration, political expansion in the Caribbean and the Far East, a strong reform movement to correct the evils growing out of rural and urban poverty, widespread political corruption, the development of organization in labor and agriculture, and the progressive movement in politics. It was within the framework of these changes that the Committee on Social Studies made its recommendations for extensive changes in the high-school social-studies program, which up to this time had been chiefly history, with some attention to civil government.

The Committee on Social Studies was a part of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education established in 1913 by the National Education Association. It was composed largely of high-school social-studies teachers, school administrators, and two historians, one of whom was James Harvey Robinson. The secretary of the committee and its moving spirit was Arthur William Dunn, specialist in civic education in the United States Bureau of Education and the founder of the community-civics movement. The two reports of the committee were *The Teaching of Community Civics*,[8] published in 1915, and *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*,[9] compiled by Dunn and published in 1916. The latter was the general report of the work of the committee.

The Committee on Social Studies based its program on what it conceived to be the best psychological, educational, and social knowledge of the day. In expressing its point of view it used the following quotation from John Dewey:

We are continually uneasy about the things we adults know, and are afraid the child will never learn them unless they are drilled into him by instruction before he has any intellectual use for them. If we could really believe that

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attending to the needs of present youth would keep the child and teacher alike busy, and would also provide the best possible guarantee of the learning needed in the future, transformation of educational ideals might soon be accomplished, and other desirable changes would largely take care of themselves.[10]

The committee hastened to add that this did not mean that "educational processes should have no reference to the future," but "it means merely that such instruction should be given at the psychological and social moment when the [pupil's] interests are such as to make the instruction function effectively in his processes of growth."[11]

The committee asserted that the most important function of social-studies instruction was the development of social efficiency and good citizenship. Citizenship was defined as involving not only the city, state, and nation but also the "world community." Content should be selected that would interest and fit the needs of growing boys and girls and contribute to social efficiency. History was to be utilized in gaining a better understanding of the present. The committee did not make any detailed outline of courses because it felt that "the selection of topics and the organization of subject matter should be determined in each case by immediate needs."[12] Consequently, classroom teachers in local communities should have considerable freedom of choice. The committee designated broad areas for each grade level, established certain basic principles, illustrated these principles by examples from actual practice, and attempted "to stimulate initiative on the part of teachers and school administrators in testing proposed methods or in judicious experiments of their own."[13]

The program recommended by the committee was as follows:

Grade VII . . . . .A half year of geography and a half year of European history taught in sequence or concurrently, with civics taught as a phase of these two or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both

Or, a full year of European history with geography taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the history and civics taught as a phase of the other two subjects or separately a period or two a week, or both

Grade VIII . . . . .A half year of American history and a half year of civics taught in sequence or concurrently with geography taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the other two subjects

Grade IX . . . . Civics, with emphasis on state, nation, and world for a half year and with emphasis on its economic and vocational aspects for the second half

Or, economic and vocational civics and economic history for a year in sequence or parallel

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Grade X........... European history to 1700
Grades XI
    and XII......... European history (including English history) since
                    1700 for one or one-half year
                    American history since the seventeeth century for one
                    or one-half year
                    Problems of American democracy (economic, social,
                    and political) for one or one-half year[14]

"It would be difficult," Tryon says, "to overstate the influence of
the report of this Committee."[15] Three common practices in the
secondary schools Tryon attributes directly to it. These are the one-
year course in early European history or world history found in the
tenth grade of many high schools; the course in problems of American
democracy offered in the twelfth grade; and the common use of the
term *social studies,* an expression made respectable by the committee's
report. Two other courses which may also be attributed to the influ-
ence of the committee are the one-year course in American history,
which has come to be required for graduation in most present-day
high schools, and the course in community civics often offered in the
ninth grade.

In discussing the inadequacy of the courses in economics, sociology,
and government which were common in the high schools in 1916 and
its proposal of a new problems course, the committee said:

The traditional courses in civil government are almost as inadequate for
the last as for the first year of the high school. Efforts to improve them have
usually consisted of only slight modifications of the traditional courses or of
an attempted simplification of political science. The results have not met
the needs of high-school pupils nor satisfied the demand of economists and
sociologists. . . .

The only feasible way the committee can see by which to satisfy in reason-
able measure the demands of the several social sciences, while maintaining
due regard for the requirements of secondary education, is to organize in-
struction, not on the basis of the formal social science, but on the basis of
concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest
to the pupil.

In other words, the suggestion is not to discard one social science in favor of
another, nor attempt to crowd the several social sciences into this year in
abridged forms; but to study actual problems, or issues, or conditions, as they
occur in life, and in their several aspects, political, economic, and sociological.
These problems or issues will naturally vary from year to year, and from class
to class, but they should be selected on the ground 1) of their immediate
interest to the class and 2) of their vital importance to society. The principle

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suggested here is the same as that applied to the organization of civics and history.[16]

The inclusion of a course in community civics in the ninth grade and of the course on problems of democracy in the twelfth grade was the result of the committee's recommendation that problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest to the pupil be included in the curriculum. These courses, in spite of the committee's recommendation, often became highly stereotyped and consisted of textbook memorization and recitation. It is true that some courses were organized functionally around contemporary problems of a personal-social nature and that a large variety of materials was used, but by far the greatest proportion of these courses followed a textbook and were organized formally.

The Social Studies During the Inter-Bellum Period

In spite of the influence of the reports of these national committees, the United States has never had a completely uniform program in the social studies. Edgar Dawson reported that the statistics collected by the History Inquiry in 1923 revealed that "about a third of the schools tended to follow the Historical Association reports; a second third tended toward the report of the Committee on Social Studies; and another third offered all possible varieties of compromises between the two offerings."[17] These variations in social-studies programs were produced by the differences in the recommendations of the committee reports, by the decentralization of educational control, by a variety of local conditions, and by the educational changes and experimentation which accompanied and followed World War I.

Increased Interest in the Social Studies

The social, economic, political, and moral reverberations of World War I had a catalytic effect upon the social studies and education generally. The idealization of democracy, the intensification of patriotism, the concern for the loyalty of recent immigrants, and the social unrest following the war, marked by labor-capital conflict and the concern over communism, all focused attention on citizenship education. Many people believed that the woeful lack in knowledge, skills, and social attitudes which the war had revealed could be corrected if students were required to take more history, economics, geography, and sociology. Many state legislatures passed laws making the teaching of United States history and of the Constitution obligatory in both public and private schools. The number of states which required by law the

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teaching of the United States Constitution increased from five in 1917 to forty in 1940, and the number of states making the teaching of United States history mandatory in the high schools increased from fifteen to twenty-six in the same period.[18]

These legal regulations, plus the belief that the more information one had about history, geography, economics, and government the more competent he would be, caused the social studies to assume increased importance in the curriculum. The percentage of students in public high schools enrolled in social-studies courses rose from 59.8 in 1900 to 70.5 in 1910 and 75.4 in 1928. This percentage dropped during the early 1930's, yet 70 per cent of the students in public high schools were still enrolled in 1934 in some course in the social studies.[19]

The conditions exposed by the war and its aftermath also led certain educators to express skepticism toward traditional practices. They began to work toward making the schools a more vital force in the social, economic, and political life of the country by stressing the development of critical-mindedness and an understanding of contemporary society.[20] At the same time, technological advance speeded up by the war made employment difficult for young people and resulted in an influx of youth into the public high schools. These youth were not the academically selected youth of the prewar high-school group but represented all levels of personal competence and intellectual and socio-economic background.

These changed conditions brought considerable controversy into social-studies instruction. Several committees were appointed by national associations to study the situation, but the scholars could not agree among themselves sufficiently to present unified recommendations.[21] Meanwhile the methods of curriculum construction employed by the national committees were criticized severely by Harold and Earle Rugg in the *Twenty-second Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education.[22] The Ruggs were leaders of a movement to select content for the social studies by using quantitative methods for analyzing activities to determine their social worth or utility. The activities thus selected were to be organized for teaching purposes into units of experience or understanding.[23]

Differences of judgment concerning content and method in civic education were not confined to the social scientists and educators. In the early 1920's, violent attacks, some of which reached the political arena, were leveled against widely used high-school history textbooks.[24] Public-opinion-forming techniques, highly developed during the war, were now used in an attempt to control the content of public-school social-studies instruction.

The depression, beginning in 1929, further intensified the influences causing changes in the social-studies program. As Merle Curti says:

The parallel between the social thought of educational leaders during the World War and in the later stages of the depression is striking. In both cases, educators declared their readiness to assume new responsibilities for building a more just, democratic, and humane social order.[25]

As a result, not only was increased emphasis placed on the social studies, but more attention was given to a consideration of contemporary economic and social problems.

Thus the situation in civic education between World War I and World War II was marked by a high degree of differentiation. Edgar Dawson, in 1929, called it a period of chaos.[26] No longer could any group of authorities recommend a curriculum that would be followed by a large proportion of the schools of the entire country. Curriculum construction in the social studies had entered a period of differentiation. Local communities, counties, and states formulated programs of study by the legion. Schools experimented with organizations of content based on fusion, correlation, and integration and with methods called *projects, activities, units,* and the like. There were men, such as Henry Johnson, who insisted that many of the so-called *new* ideas had been tried previously and some of them had been found wanting.[27] But urged on by conditions within and without the school, educators worked energetically with care and sincerity to improve the social-studies program so as to develop better the competence needed for effective democratic living.

Curriculum study and experimentation were accelerated as educators sought to improve educational practices and to modify or reorganize the curriculum so that it would meet the needs and interests of young people as well as the pressing demands of society. New courses of study were developed by individual school systems and state departments; experimentation in method, classroom techniques, and curriculum organization were undertaken by teachers and educational experts; and many research studies dealing with the curriculum were made. The United States Office of Education reported in 1936 that 28 per cent of the research studies in education undertaken since 1930 had dealt specifically with the curriculum. From 1930 to 1935, nearly 500 high-school courses of study were reported, 202 by state school systems and 277 by city school systems. Many others were undoubtedly developed by schools for local use with their own staffs but not for publication. Most of the new courses of study, the Office of Education reported, were in social studies and English.[28]

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The tentative nature of these new programs was a healthful sign. Most of them appeared in mimeographed form with ample provision for constant revision. There was thus less likelihood that the programs of these schools would be frozen or stereotyped or that identical programs would be followed in all schools. That schools were breaking away from a fixed pattern and were more willing to adopt programs in keeping with the needs of the students in a particular community or school was found to be true by the Commission on History of the College Entrance Examination Board in a survey which it made and reported in 1936. It found, as Dawson had earlier, that there was no universally common pattern in the social-studies curriculum in either the private or the public schools.[20] The report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association further encouraged experimentation in the social-studies program, since the commission steadfastly refused to recommend a new program which would allegedly rescue the social studies from the chaotic condition into which it had fallen. Instead, their report analyzed the social situation, presented materials, raised issues, indicated some guiding principles for curriculum construction, and pointed out to social-studies teachers and curriculum-builders steps which they could take to make education realistic and effective.

The work of this commission was the most ambitious attempt made to give direction to the development of the social-studies program during the inter-bellum period. The commission grew out of the History Inquiry which the Association had sponsored in 1923 to study the changes in social-studies instruction that had followed World War I. Edgar Dawson reported the findings of the Inquiry in the *Historical Outlook* for June 1924.[30] The report showed that many changes were occurring, and during the late 1920's a group of leaders in the American Historical Association felt that a new commission was needed to give direction to these changes. A plan was formulated by A. C. Krey, funds were secured from the Carnegie Corporation, and in 1929 the commission was appointed and began work. Composed of prominent scholars from the social sciences and education, the commission consisted of sixteen members,[31] with Professor Krey as chairman. This group represented many points of view in the social sciences and education. Extensive surveys and research projects were carried on; and from 1932 to 1941 seventeen volumes were published, written largely by members of the commission.[32]

Instead of recommending a program of study as previous committees had done, the commission recommended that regional groups throughout the country should develop programs to fit local needs.[33] The point

of view or frame of reference and many of the conclusions of the commission were criticized severely and in turn were defended with equal vigor. The work of the commission undoubtedly has had considerable influence. Ruth West said in the Foreword of *The Future of the Social Studies:*

Most social studies teachers have found the reports of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association their most helpful guide in this period of change.[34]

The report in 1940 of the Committee on the Function of the Social Studies in General Education for the Commission of Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association likewise refused to recommend a fixed program; instead it insisted that a program of social education to provide rich and meaningful experiences in the basic aspects of life and to promote optimum personal development and *effective participation in a democratic society should be built on* the personal-social needs of adolescents as revealed by a study of adolescents themselves and of the culture in which the adolescents live.[35]

Limitations of High-School Social-Studies Programs in Producing Social Competence

While great hope was held out that the new interest in the social studies and the inclusion of the new courses would result in increased social competence on the part of the American public, the immediate results were disappointing. Even though the schools continued to put their greatest emphasis on the teaching of facts and subject matter, they did not succeed to any great degree in equipping their students with knowledge of contemporary problems or of the historical, economic, and sociological factors responsible for those problems. In a study carried on by Julia Emery in 1935, a social-information test was given to twelve thousand high-school students in communities varying in size from a Kansas village to Chicago. Miss Emery discovered that 1 per cent of these high-school students could not name the President of the United States; only 22 per cent knew that Stalin was a dictator; less than one third of the students knew the official position of Cordell Hull, then Secretary of State; only 9 per cent could identify Stanley Baldwin, then British Prime Minister, and 3 per cent, Maxim Litvinoff, then Foreign Minister of Russia. When the students were asked to select from a list of statements those characteristics applicable to democracy, fascism, or communism, "their answers were little short of disgraceful."[36] Of the high-school seniors tested, 27 per cent did not associate

democracy with the rule of the majority. Miss Emery found that the social knowledge of high-school seniors was little better than that of sophomores.

The Pennsylvania Study and the Regents' Inquiry, both published in 1938, also substantiate this fact. The social-studies curriculums which exist in most of our schools, they point out, do not provide for effective educational development. Too often they are made up of a series of independent courses in which the students learn the information required for "passing" a particular course and then proceed to forget it since the information is not necessary for success in the next course and since most of it has no relation to daily living. The Pennsylvania Study found that of the 20,538 high-school seniors to whom the American history test was given, those who had just completed American history made a much better score on the average than those who had completed their study the preceding year.[37] Howard E. Wilson found that the students in New York State knew about half the items on tests of conventional civic information and American history; that there were peaks of achievement in the ninth and twelfth grades, where the material covered by the tests is required of practically all the students.[38]

If students are to acquire the understandings necessary for effective participation in group living, the Pennsylvania Study concludes, they should have an opportunity to meet again and again important social and economic concepts and generalizations so that, through progressive study and reflection, these become a part of their mental equipment, to be interpreted and applied in their daily living. An effective social-education program should permit a student to grow continuously in knowledge, competence, and value patterns so that by any valid standard of evaluation he will show marked improvement over his previous accomplishments. The series of isolated courses which characterizes most social-studies curriculums prevents rather than promotes this growth.[39]

In 1943 the *New York Times* gave an examination to 7000 high-school graduates "to determine the amount of United States history that the high school graduate retains from his secondary course." Granted that the test was inadequate and that it asked questions which required rote memorization rather than understanding of basic generalizations about the development of the United States, many students had forgotten, mislearned, or never learned many facts about the history of their country.

Seventeen hundred and five of the 7,000 students or 25%, did not know that Abraham Lincoln was President . . . during the Civil War . . . . Many

students attending Southern colleges thought that Jefferson Davis had been President of the United States . . . 2,077 students, or 30% did not know that Woodrow Wilson was President . . . during the last World War.[40]

While these inquiries show the limitations of social-studies instruction in providing students with knowledge and understandings needed for mature participation in a democratic society, other research studies point out that the schools, and the social-studies programs in particular, have had little effect on the social attitudes which students are developing.[41] The Regents' Inquiry concluded that the attitudes which students hold have no relation to the quantity of work taken in the social studies, but are highly related to out-of-school factors, to intelligence, and to the general morale of the school as an institution. Furthermore, after examining the evidence on the attitudes held by twenty thousand high-school students, they concluded that most social-studies instruction and the school's program in general are ineffective and sterile in so far as they contribute to the development of liberal attitudes.[42]

Furthermore, the economic and social crises of the 1930's showed that in spite of the increased emphasis on the social studies, many Americans were poorly equipped in the necessary skills as well as in the knowledge and attitudes needed for democratic living. The inability of most individuals to think rationally concerning socio-economic problems, for example, has been demonstrated by the willingness of millions of people during depression periods to follow unsound political and economic messiahs who make wild promises of panaceas and utopias. Public discussions in the newspapers and over the radio are also indicative of the inadequacies in reflective thinking as applied to social problems. These inadequacies are particularly serious in a democracy because of its reliance upon the reasoning ability of the common man. The maintenance of democracy in America depends to a large extent on the ability of the schools to help youth to understand political and economic problems and to think and act intelligently in social situations.[43]

Attacks upon Social-Studies Instruction

Evidence of social incompetence accompanied by severe conflicts of interest resulted during the late 1930's and early 1940's in a renewal of attacks upon social-studies textbooks and methods of teaching. These attacks were, in many instances, well-organized and persistent. Widely used social-studies textbooks were removed from many classrooms, authors and teachers were accused of radicalism and un-Americanism, and the schools and colleges were charged with neglecting to teach

American history.[44] In an effort to discover the extent to which United States history was being taught, the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies appointed, in 1943, a Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges with Edgar B. Wesley as director. After a careful investigation this committee stated in its report that:

(1) The number of courses in American history in the schools and colleges is sufficient. If the results are unsatisfactory the remedy is not the multiplication of courses . . . . (2) Enrollment in American history courses in elementary and junior high school approaches 100 per cent of the students in attendance. (3) Enrollment in American history courses in senior high school is so high that the Committee sees no need to urge any change in programs at this level.[45]

Thus, practically all high-school graduates have had American history courses at least three times.

The evidence of the Committee on American History shows that, in spite of the changes of the inter-bellum period, the basic structure of the social-studies program has not been altered markedly in the great majority of the schools of the United States. Evidence from other sources also supports this conclusion.[46] If there are inadequacies in the social-civic competence of present high-school graduates, perhaps there is need for more change rather than less in social-studies content and methods. And as Erling Hunt says, "It is, again, not the quantity but the kind and the quality of history that we teach that needs attention."[47]

Definition of Terms

One of the reasons for conflict and misunderstanding in the area of social education is the confusion over the meaning of commonly used terms. For example, some people have decried the encroachment of the social studies on American history and advocated that less social studies and more history be taught. Yet how can the social studies as such encroach on American history when American history is one of the most important of the social studies taught in American schools?

Three terms are now commonly used in discussing education specifically directed toward improved human relations. These terms are: (1) *social sciences;* (2) *social studies;* and (3) *social education.* The oldest of these is the term *social sciences.* The sciences traditionally have been divided into two parts: the natural and the social. The natural sciences are concerned with the physical phenomena of the universe while the social sciences are concerned with "the activities of the individual as a member of a group."[48] Defined more completely,

They are concerned with the *actualities* of human societies in development, with *records* of past actualities, with *knowledge,* with *thought,* and with *methods* of acquiring knowledge respecting the actualities of human societies in development.[49]

The social sciences include such recognized fields of study and research as political science, economics, history, jurisprudence, geography, anthropology, and sociology. Within each of these fields there have developed systematic bodies of knowledge and methods of research for securing new knowledge about man's relation to man, the problems of men living in groups, and problems of relations between groups. The study of the social sciences, therefore, is an endeavor to master the systematic body of knowledge already available, to develop skill in recognized methods of research, and to use those methods to discover new knowledge about social relations. The study of the social sciences generally occurs at the college and university level.

The term *social sciences* is sometimes used to describe such subjects as history, civics, and geography as taught in the public schools. Since 1916, however, when the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association publicized and gave official sanction to its use, the term *social studies* has come to be more commonly used for describing such subjects at the public school level. In the first sentence of its report, the Committee on Social Studies stated: "The social studies are understood to be those whose subject-matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups."[50] This definition does not differentiate the social studies from the social sciences, and the terms often have been used interchangeably. Rolla Tryon cites considerable confusion in the use of both *social sciences* and *social studies,* and he notes the "more or less common" practice during the 1920's of using *social studies* to name an integrated course of study.[51] It is this definition that has tended to identify social studies with a neglect of history in the minds of some individuals and groups.

Edgar Wesley has taken the leadership in making the definition of *social studies* clear and specific. He says: "The *social studies* are the *social sciences* simplified for pedagogical purposes . . . . In schools the social studies usually consist of geography, history, economics, sociology, and civics, and various combinations of these subjects."[52] The weight of usage supports Wesley's definition. This is the sense in which the Committee on Social Studies used the phrase. The National Council for the Social Studies, including teachers of history and other social subjects, uses the term in this sense, and public schools throughout the nation use it to describe such subjects as history, civics, geography, and

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the like. Hence, the term *social studies* refers to no particular curricular organization. It would greatly clarify the discussion of education for social competence if this fact were accepted and if the term were used consistently as Wesley has defined it and as accepted usage dictates.

The term *social education* is of more recent usage than *social studies*, and its definition has not yet become clarified. It is the name of the official magazine of the National Council for the Social Studies and in this connection is used with a meaning identical to that of *social studies*. *Social education*, however, is used also to describe all educational activities under the direction of the school which have as their purpose the improvement of human relations, thus recognizing that all teachers and administrators have social-education responsibilities. It was in this sense that the phrase was used in the Stanford Social Education Investigation.

The Stanford Social Education Investigation

A major theme in the committee reports that have shaped social-studies instruction has been the importance of well-qualified and well-trained teachers. The Committee on Social Studies wrote in 1916: "Probably the greatest obstacle to the vitalization of the social studies is the lack of preparation on the part of teachers,"[53] and the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges wrote in 1944 that all other factors making for a high quality of social-studies instruction "are ineffectual unless the work is directed by a good teacher."[54] Both these reports recognize the importance not only of pre-service training but also of in-service education.

One of the major trends in the social-studies field in recent years has been an increased recognition of the need for in-service education as teachers of the social studies have attempted to cope with the rapid changes in society and the social sciences and with the controversies concerning the proper function, content, and methods of social-studies instruction. It was in response to the need for in-service education that the Stanford Social Education Investigation was organized in 1939 under a grant from the General Education Board. The purposes of the Investigation were: (1) to contribute to the in-service development of teachers; (2) to assist in local programs of curriculum development; (3) to encourage experimentation in social-studies instruction; (4) to establish closer coöperation between the work of the university and the work of the public school; and (5) to develop evaluation procedures to determine the extent to which the techniques utilized by the Investigation were successful.

The personnel of the Social Education Investigation consisted of a

total of 112 classroom teachers and 31 administrators, supervisors, and coördinators from eighteen secondary schools in ten school systems in the western part of the United States. The ten school systems were:

Denver, Colorado; Eugene, Oregon; Fortuna Union High School, Fortuna, California; Long Beach, California; Los Angeles, California; Menlo School and Junior College, Menlo Park, California; Pasadena, California; Salt Lake City, Utah; Seattle, Washington; Sequoia Union High School, Redwood City, California.

All of these are public school systems except Menlo School and Junior College, a private boarding and day school for boys and young men.
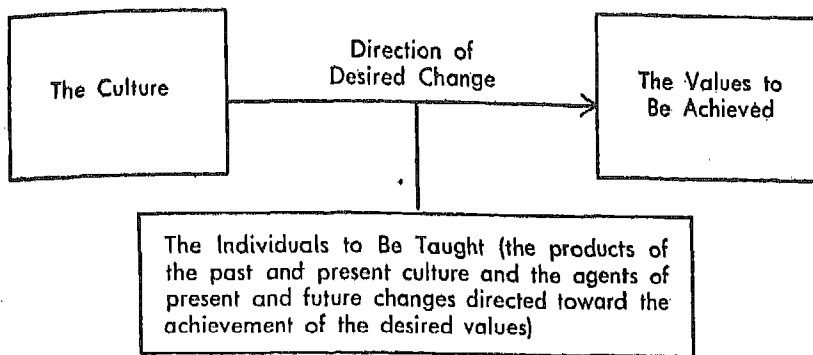
The teachers in the Investigation were, in large part, from the social-studies field; but recognizing the contribution of all subject fields to the development of social competence, the Investigation included a few teachers from science, English, industrial arts, home economics, and the like. The Investigation continued from 1939 to 1943[55] under the direction of a staff at Stanford University. Workshops were held each summer in 1939, 1940, 1941, and 1942; and, during each school year, staff members visited the coöperating schools and worked with the participants on their local programs and problems.[56]

Much of the material in this book is based on the work of the Stanford Social Education Investigation. The authors, however, have not confined themselves to reporting the results of the Investigation. Instead, they have attempted to make the book as complete a survey as possible of curriculum and instruction in the field of secondary-school social studies with the hope that a contribution may be made to both the pre-service and the in-service education of social-studies teachers.

Basic Factors in Social Education

There are three basic factors involved in the development of a program of social education: (1) the culture which supports the program; (2) the values to be achieved; and (3) the nature and needs of the individuals to be taught. The culture sets the task, provides the content and materials, and conditions the results of social education. The dominant values of the culture give direction to instruction and provide a basis for the definition of objectives. The nature and needs of the individuals to be taught provide the ultimate basis for the selection of content, its assignment to grade levels, its organization for teaching, and the determination of methods that are most fruitful in achieving the desired changes in behavior indicated by the objectives.

The relationship between the culture, the values, and the nature and needs of the individual may be depicted graphically as follows:[57]

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┌─────────────────────┐        Direction of              ┌─────────────────────┐
│                     │        Desired Change            │                     │
│    The Culture      │────────────────────────────────▶ │   The Values to      │
│                     │                 │                │   Be Achieved        │
│                     │                 │                │                     │
└─────────────────────┘                 ▼                └─────────────────────┘
              ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
              │  The Individuals to Be Taught (the products of    │
              │  the past and present culture and the agents of   │
              │  present and future changes directed toward the   │
              │  achievement of the desired values)               │
              └──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Social education thus takes its orientation from both the individual and the group, assaying social realities in order to determine what is possible and desirable and developing each individual so that he both contributes and receives the maximum of human value. The teacher is concerned with the individual-in-society in order that the interaction between the two may be guided effectively.

The Characteristics of American Culture

Public education cannot be separated from the culture of which it is a part. Any organized system of public education is the function of a particular cultural group at a specific time and in a definite place. A function of education is to transmit, maintain, and improve the culture which supports it. In fulfilling this task, teachers of the social studies have a major responsibility; hence, in the development of a program of social education they need to understand the following generalizations expressing salient aspects of contemporary American culture.[58]

1. The widespread employment of the scientific method of thought has produced revolutionary inventions and resulted in the development of a machine technology.

2. The widespread employment of the machine in the production of goods has produced a specialized, interdependent, and increasingly centralized economy, made possible not only by factory production but also by great advances in transportation and communication which have so reduced space in terms of travel and communication time that the whole world is rapidly becoming a single interdependent unity.

3. Factory production has caused a concentration of population in cities, thus producing a shift from a rural, handicraft culture to an urban, industrialized culture with increased complexity in human relationships and in the problems of daily living.

4. Relationships in modern urban culture have shifted, to a large

extent, from the face-to-face (primary) associations of the earlier rural environment to person-to-group and group-to-group (secondary) relationships in which intimacy of acquaintanceship and warmth in personal relations are being replaced by increasing anonymity and impersonality; thus, the individual often feels isolated and alone in the midst of great masses of humanity.

5. Science and invention have accelerated change in most areas of modern culture. The rate of change, however, has been most pronounced in the material aspects of the environment, while change in social organization and control has often been resisted strongly. The result has been incoördination in change accompanied by severe tensions, social maladjustments, and conflicts of interest,[50] which, in periods of crisis, may extend to a challenge of basic values and established systems of social organization and control.

6. Since modern culture is specialized and interdependent over broad areas and the major relationships are secondary, interest groups have organized on a mass basis. Hence, conflicts of interest are waged by mass organizations employing the best psychological knowledge and the most efficient agencies of communication; and when these means fail, groups within and among nations sometimes seek to secure their ends by force.

7. The hope for peace, prosperity, and happiness in the modern world is that man will be able and willing to solve his problems and make necessary changes through the use of reason and democratic action. In a complex culture. marked by limited opportunities for learning through direct experiences, formal education must assume a heavy responsibility for developing competence in critical thinking and democratic processes.

The above characteristics of modern culture condition the task of the school in general and of the social-studies teacher in particular. But a knowledge of cultural conditions alone is not enough. Change is necessarily in some direction. Hence, in order to develop the competence necessary for effective thought and action in contemporary culture, the social-studies teacher must possess a conception of values; and, in the United States, there is practically universal agreement that change should be in the direction of a fuller realization of democratic values.

The Nature of American Democracy

Democracy has provided the American people with both a method of government and a way of life. Its principles are embodied in the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States,

and such great pronouncements as the Gettysburg Address. As a method of government, democracy is based on the free choice of representatives at election time, on freedom of discussion and assembly, on a faith in the capacity of the common man to make reasonable decisions, on good will toward others, and on a desire to work for the common welfare. The process of democracy consists of (1) the recognition of a common problem requiring group action; (2) freedom to learn, speak, write, and assemble so that all points of view may be presented; (3) agreement through a consensus of judgment or action based on the majority decision—expressed through a secret ballot, if necessary to secure a free expression of opinion; and (4) continued freedom of learning, assembly, speech, writing, and petition on the part of both the minority and the majority so that action subsequently may be modified whenever a majority of the group supports a proposed change. Democracy as a method of government is a peaceful procedure for solving problems of common concern and of directing social change through group thought and coöperation. It springs from a faith in man's reason and good will.

Democracy as a way of life also rests on a conception of the unique worth of the individual. It is based on the idea that each individual should have equal opportunity to develop his maximum potentialities and to use those potentialities to promote both his individual and the common welfare. Individual and group welfare cannot properly be separated, however. Individuals must exert creative thought and constructive activity in order to bring about an improvement in group welfare, which cannot be realized except in terms of an improvement in the welfare of the individuals that make up the group. Conversely, in an interdependent world, individuals can have well-being only as there is common welfare. Social-studies instruction, then, must take its orientation from both the individual and the group, assaying social realities in order to determine what is possible and desirable and developing the potentialities of each individual so that he both contributes and receives the maximum of human value.

The values of democracy both as a method of government and as a way of life may be summarized as (1) a respect for the individual and a faith in his unique worth and infinite value regardless of race, creed, or economic circumstance; (2) the willingness and ability to participate coöperatively and peacefully in the promotion of common concerns and in the solution of common problems; (3) faith in the intelligence of the common man and a willingness and ability to use reason rather than prejudice, bigotry, or force in the solution of group problems; and (4) a belief that through mutual respect, coöperative action, and the use of intelligence man can achieve peace, prosperity, and hap-

piness. These values give direction to education for social competence; they indicate that its aim is to develop individuals who have respect for others, who can coöperate in group activity, use their intelligence, and have faith in the future.

In an attempt to make democratic values more specific guides for educational workers, the Educational Policies Commission identified the "Hallmarks of Democratic Education" as follows:

1. Democratic education has as its central purpose the welfare of all the people.
2. Democratic education serves each individual with justice, seeking to provide equal educational opportunity for all, regardless of intelligence, race, religion, social status, economic condition, or vocational plans.
3. Democratic education respects the basic civil liberties in practice and clarifies their meaning through study.
4. Democratic education is concerned for the maintenance of those economic, political, and social conditions which are necessary for the enjoyment of liberty.
5. Democratic education guarantees to all the members of its community the right to share in determining the purposes and policies of education.
6. Democratic education uses democratic methods, in classroom, administration, and student activities.
7. Democratic education makes efficient use of personnel, teaching respect for competence in positions of responsibility.
8. Democratic education teaches through experience that every privilege entails a corresponding duty, every authority a responsibility, every responsibility an accounting to the group which granted the privilege or authority.
9. Democratic education demonstrates that far-reaching changes, of both policies and procedures, can be carried out in orderly and peaceful fashion, when the decisions to make the changes have been reached by democratic means.
10. Democratic education liberates and uses the intelligence of all.
11. Democratic education equips citizens with the materials of knowledge needed for democratic efficiency.
12. Democratic education promotes loyalty to democracy by stressing positive understanding and appreciation and by summoning youth to service in a great cause.[60]
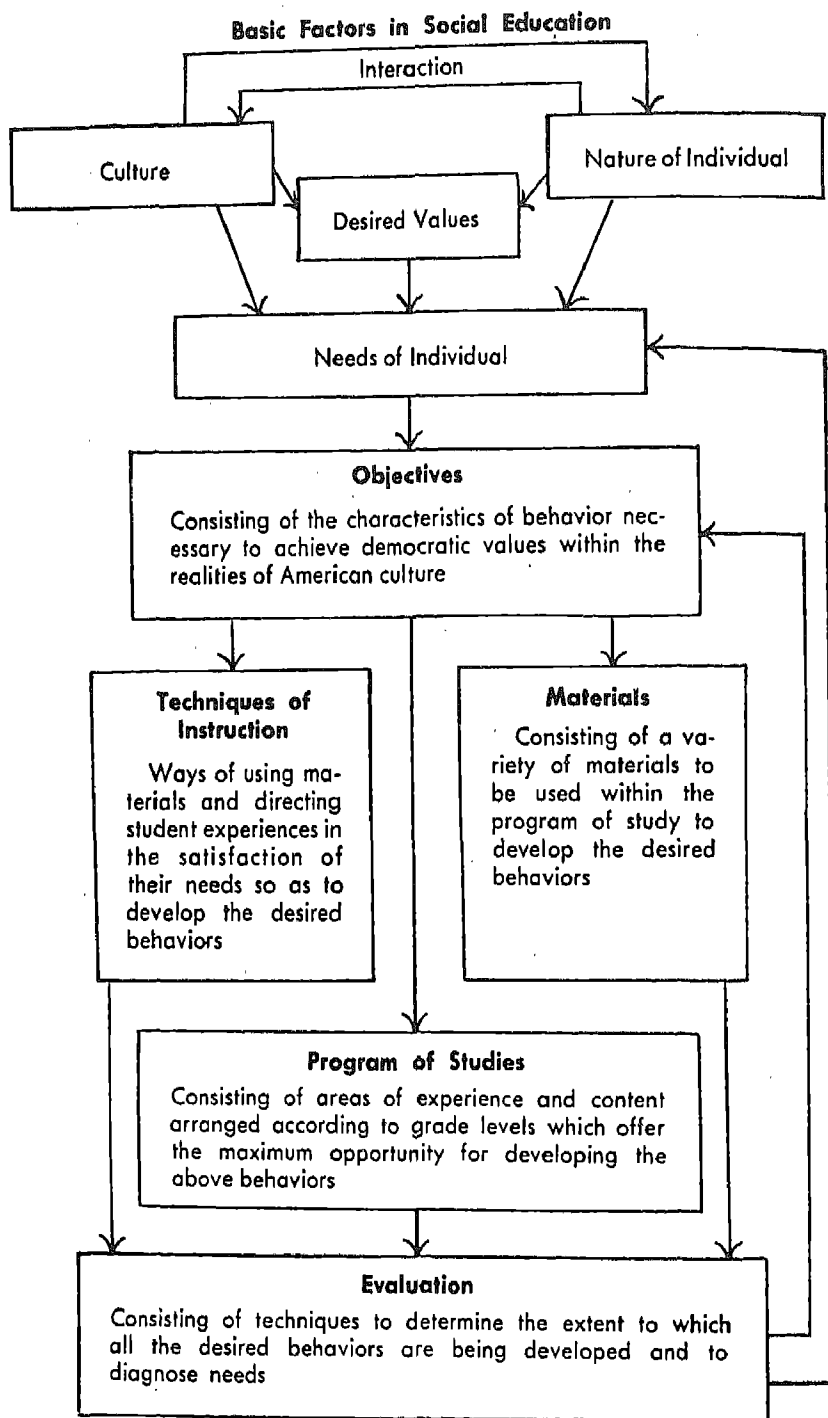
The values of democracy, to be most useful in giving direction to social education, need to be translated into goals for human improvement for which there is widespread public support. The people of the United States, in common with the peoples of other nations, have a high degree of agreement on three major goals: (1) international coöperation to secure a lasting peace; (2) a high level of eco-

nomic well-being, and a standard of living commensurate with the potentialities of modern technology; and (3) a fuller realization of the values of democracy in intercultural, interethnic, and interracial relations. All these goals have implications for social education: international coöperation requires the development of international understanding to support it; economic well-being requires a more extensive emphasis on education for economic efficiency; and better intergroup relations involves a greater equality of educational opportunity in the nation and the world as a whole, and, in many cases, in local communities, schools, and classrooms.

Summary of the Remainder of This Volume

The development of social education in the United States, some of the major characteristics of American culture which affect it, and the nature of American democratic values which give it direction have been discussed in this chapter. The remaining chapters of the book will discuss individual growth and development, the nature of individual needs, the characteristics of behavior which form the objectives for social-studies instruction, the program of studies, materials of instruction, techniques of teaching and learning, procedures for evaluation, and the professional development of the social-studies teacher. The basic organization of the book may be depicted graphically as shown on the following page.

The culture and the values indicate the objectives of social-studies instruction; and the objectives combined with the nature of individual growth and development and the needs of the students provide a basis for selecting content and organizing it in a program of study, for choosing materials of instruction, and for developing techniques of teaching and learning. Evaluation provides a continuous basis for determining the effectiveness of the whole program by indicating the extent to which the behaviors selected as objectives are actually being developed.

Basic Factors in Social Education

Interaction

| Culture | | Nature of Individual |

Desired Values

Needs of Individual

Objectives

Consisting of the characteristics of behavior necessary to achieve democratic values within the realities of American culture

Techniques of Instruction

Ways of using materials and directing student experiences in the satisfaction of their needs so as to develop the desired behaviors

Materials

Consisting of a variety of materials to be used within the program of study to develop the desired behaviors

Program of Studies

Consisting of areas of experience and content arranged according to grade levels which offer the maximum opportunity for developing the above behaviors

Evaluation

Consisting of techniques to determine the extent to which all the desired behaviors are being developed and to diagnose needs

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THE NATURE AND NEEDS OF THE INDIVIDUAL

Growing Up in American Culture

THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL social-studies teacher is concerned with the development of individual personalities at a particular period of their growth, namely, the period of adolescence. In our culture the period of adolescence is one of the most crucial times in the life history of an individual. During the period of infancy and childhood, the individual has taken on the ideals and customs of his parents, teachers, and companions, as well as those of the community. The pattern of his family's culture has been passed on to him, well-mixed with that of his teachers and of the parents of his age-mates. But during adolescence the individual is shifting from childhood to an adult rôle. It is an in-between period which may be shortened or prolonged by parents, by the cultural situation, or by the physical and emotional characteristics of the adolescent himself.

Adolescence entails not only great physical changes in the development of the individual, but emotional, intellectual, and social changes as well. The physical changes are well known, but insufficient attention has been given to the wide range of normality which exists both in the rate and in the nature of these changes. Many adolescents are intensely concerned and self-conscious because of feelings of abnormality resulting when either slowness or rapidity of growth causes them to feel undersize or oversize. These feelings of emotional concern and instability extend far beyond their own physical changes, as adolescents seek to make basic adjustments in many areas and to achieve goals pointing toward the assumption of adult responsibilities. Recent research indicates that the major goals or tasks of the adolescent are (1) to break away from parental dependence and to establish self-dependence in wider social relations; (2) to prepare for and secure a job that will provide adult status; (3) to establish wholesome heterosexual relations leading toward marriage and a happy family life; (4) to develop worth-while and enjoyable ways of spending leisure time; (5) to become intelligent in the purchasing of goods and services;

(6) to establish status as an adult citizen through competence in social-civic activities; (7) to make fundamental choices of allegiance; and (8) to develop a philosophy of life and a design for living commensurate with individual potentialities, social realities, and the ideals of democracy.

The achievement of goals leading toward adulthood is not easy, and, in the process, adolescents develop many tensions and feelings of insecurity. This emotional instability is intensified by the nature of the adolescent, who, while no longer a child, is still not an adult; at times he acts childishly, but at other times he assumes the behavior of the adult. While the pattern of behavior in each adolescent is unique, the similarities of the human organism and the challenges and frustrations of a common culture cause adolescents to develop characteristic modes of behavior.

Most adolescents, in seeking to wean themselves from parents, assume a brusque and sometimes highly emotional attitude toward members of their own families. They seek as many out-of-family relationships as possible. In preadolescence these relationships are usually rather intensive associations with a few members of the same sex. This is the gang stage of development. Following this, "crushes" on or "hero worship" of adult members of the same, and occasionally the opposite, sex are common. Later the adolescent goes beyond the gang and "crush" stages of development and seeks to establish heterosexual relationships. Early interest in the opposite sex is usually highly emotional and unstable, characterized as "puppy love"; but later attachments become more stable and cliques of three or four couples may associate together over a period of time. These cliques often dominate the social and political life of the senior high school.

The adolescent, in seeking to establish his worth, desires opportunities to assume an important rôle in the group. He wants important jobs to do so that he can demonstrate his ability. This often leads to an interest in socio-economic problems and movements. This interest is accompanied by an intense interest in values; and, in seeking to achieve status and build a design for living, the adolescent sets high ideals for himself. He tends to be a "joiner" and enjoys identifying himself with a larger movement which serves some ideal.

Moreover, the complexity, maladjustments, and conflicts in modern American culture complicate the growing-up process. The adolescent finds that (1) many adults have no dominant pattern of values which give direction and meaning to their lives; (2) the impersonality and complexity of modern life make it difficult to secure affection outside the family and to have a feeling of belonging in the larger social

group; (3) work and marriage, except in wartime, often seem indefinitely postponed; (4) the family is unstable and its rôle in the modern world seems uncertain; and (5) insecurity and group conflict are widely prevalent.

Perhaps one of the greatest difficulties facing many adolescents in modern culture is the lack of value standards to which they are able to give wholehearted allegiance. Man eternally seeks to order his daily activities in terms of some conception of the good, the beautiful, and the true. He seeks a satisfying picture of the universe and his place therein, of his relationships with groups and other individuals, and a concept of self which indicates his unique value as a dynamic force in society. In most historic cultures, and in some countries today, these value standards are furnished by rather definite group regulation or by religious beliefs. During the past century and a half, many families have given up religious values and fail to provide their children with a satisfying philosophy of life. This failure of the group to provide adequate value standards for many adolescents as they approach adulthood is a complicating factor in their spiritual and emotional development. As Lawrence Frank states:

Probably never before have so many individuals faced the responsibility of finding security for themselves instead of receiving it in the traditions and customs of the group.[1]

The development of individual value standards is especially difficult because of the complexity and impersonality of modern culture. In an agrarian, handicraft culture with warm personal relationships, the development of value standards does not present the problem that faces youth today when phenomena are complex and relationships tend to be casual and impersonal. It is difficult for the adolescent to comprehend the nature of the political, economic, and social maladjustments that he sees about him. Nor can most adolescents expect much help from the members of their families. The rôle of the family itself is uncertain. Parents have had their own moral standards basically disturbed by world wars, depressions, and ideological conflicts. Being uncertain of their own moral values, they are often incompetent to aid their children in building satisfying values and ideals. ·

Added to the uncertainty in value standards, adolescents find their tensions magnified by postponement of work and marriage. Work is plentiful and marriage is often early during wars, but in much of the past half century, technological efficiency has been narrowing job opportunities for young people. The period of education has been extended by law. There are few opportunities for adolescents to assure them-

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selves of their ability to achieve success vocationally and to secure a satisfying status in the adult world. The inability to earn also postpones marriage, with all the accompanying difficulties in establishing wholesome heterosexual relations.

These conditions in modern culture produce feelings of insecurity and inferiority in many adolescents. They feel frustrated in breaking away from family dependence, getting a job, establishing a family, assuming adult responsibilities in social-civic activities, and developing an adequate standard of values. Their frustrations are often exploited by antidemocratic groups which use all types of propaganda techniques to secure the unreasoned loyalty of young people. In totalitarian nations, these techniques were systematized in mass youth movements which glorified the use of force and the submission of the individual to the leader. Even in the United States antidemocratic groups have sought to weaken the faith of youth in traditional American values and to drive entering wedges by which to establish alien ideologies and forms of government based on blind allegiance to authority and force in contrast to democratic reliance on reason, persuasion, compromise, and respect for the infinite value of the individual.

Conditions in modern culture thus complicate the problems of growing up. Young people find it difficult to secure affection, to feel that they belong, and to achieve an established status and a feeling of adequacy. As a result, many adolescents feel unwanted and insecure in their daily living. They also have difficulty in satisfying such needs as those of personal health, social participation, and vocational orientation. Recognition of these problems of youth, though helpful in setting the larger tasks of social-studies teachers, is not alone an adequate basis for social-studies instruction. All adolescents are unique individuals in a process of continual change through interaction with a constantly changing environment. Hence, the teacher should not only be sensitive to the general needs of all adolescents, but should also utilize techniques which make him aware of the needs of each adolescent under his guidance at a particular time and in a particular place. An awareness of these needs becomes a *sine qua non* of effective education, because individuals become interested and purposefully active only in need-satisfying situations.

The Needs Concept as a Basis for Curriculum Development

Definition of Needs

Unfortunately, the term *needs*, as used in education, has come to have a variety of meanings. Some educators have used it as if the needs

of an individual were synonymous with his wants, desires, and wishes, as if all needs were "felt needs." It is against this concept of needs that Boyd H. Bode leveled his barrage in *Progressive Education at the Crossroads.*[2] Most teachers, seriously concerned with the education of youth, would agree with Bode that a concept of needs which would require schools to cater only to the passing whims and wishes of students would be an unsound basis on which to build a curriculum.

Another concept of needs goes to the other extreme. Those who accept this position use the term to refer to the demands which the teacher thinks society will make upon the student as an adult and for which he must therefore be prepared. Thus teachers have long contended that students "need" Latin, quadratic equations, formal grammar, or ancient history to be well-educated or to meet some future and often unidentified demand which society might make upon them.
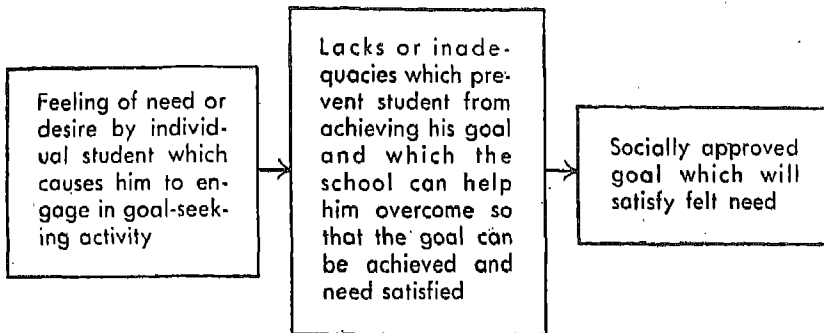
To add to the confusion, another group of educators uses *needs* to refer only to the drives or compelling and directing impulses and motives lying entirely within the individual personality. Some of these needs are physiological—the need for food, clothing, air, shelter, rest, and exercise; others are personality needs—the need for affection, belonging, achievement, self-esteem, social approval, and the like. This concept of needs has received far more attention from elementary-school people than it has from secondary, and more attention has been given to planning educational experiences for the child which will help him develop his inner personality than has been given to planning for the adolescent. Secondary educators, when they speak of *needs*, have more often referred to the demands which society has made upon the adolescent and have concerned themselves with finding ways of helping him meet these demands; for example, in finding a job, establishing adequate relations with his age-mates, using goods wisely, establishing a home, and getting an education.

All these concepts are helpful in understanding needs as a basis for curriculum development, but no one of these meanings alone is entirely satisfactory. Needs are always personal and individual. They are biological tensions, desires, or drives which the individual tries to satisfy. But needs do not exist wholly within an individual or apart from the environment or cultural pattern of which he is a part. The individual grows and develops only through interaction with the demands of his social environment; his impulses "have no being except in a social medium and are without meaning and without name except as they assume socialized forms."[3] If the individual is to be an effective member of society, he must meet the demands which society makes upon him; and the school must help him develop the attitudes,

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competence, and knowledge which will enable him to meet those demands. It is the school's task to help young people overcome their personal inadequacies or lacks so that they may satisfy their needs in socially acceptable ways and develop into well-adjusted and competent individuals. For example, participation in recreational activities may involve acceptable personal appearance and manners; cleanliness; the ability to perform certain skills, such as playing games or dancing; and the ability to speak easily and correctly. Lacks and inadequacies are, in most cases, determined by the culture. Young people in a democratic society have needs which differ from those of totalitarian youth. Adolescents growing up today in an industrial, interdependent culture which is highly impersonal and institutionalized have need of skills and knowledges very different from those needed by adolescents who grew up in the agrarian and relatively localized society which characterized America only a short time ago (see diagram on next page) .

By their very nature, needs must always be both *personal* and *social* and are best defined as *individual wants and desires plus lacks and inadequacies which are expressed in the interaction of the individual with the social environment of which he is a part.* Thus, "the need of the student to use his leisure time wisely" refers to a desire or want (a tension which is *personal*) and the demands or requirements of society (which are *social*), and the two are necessarily interrelated. Moreover, each individual's needs are unique, for he reacts to his environment in terms of his own particular pattern of motives, training, and background. For one, the need "to use his leisure time wisely" may be the need for an adequate balance between rest and activity; for another, it may be the need to gain status with his peers or to feel that he is an accepted and valued member of a group; for still a third, it may be the need for success or achievement so that he may develop self-esteem. These personal drives may be satisfied in ways which meet with social approval or they may be expressed in undesirable and antisocial activities. The means which a young person uses to satisfy his need for recreation, whether it be desirable or undesirable, is the outgrowth of his own social environment. American young people find ways of spending their leisure time which do not appeal to the Chinese; adolescents in the city have recreational needs and opportunities which differ from those of adolescents growing up in rural communities; adolescents in one section of the city have cultural patterns which differ from those in another. It is the task of the school to guide students to overcome their lacks and inadequacies, to develop their social competence, and to direct their energies so that they will meet their needs in a manner socially desirable in terms of the cultural pattern of the community.

Needs as Basis for Curriculum

Feeling of need or desire by individual student which causes him to engage in goal-seeking activity	Lacks or inadequacies which prevent student from achieving his goal and which the school can help him overcome so that the goal can be achieved and need satisfied	Socially approved goal which will satisfy felt need

A knowledge of student needs provides a basis for organizing a program of study, selecting and motivating content and experience in the classroom, and directing instruction toward the achievement of desirable goals and the development of desirable behaviors

In spite of the uniqueness of students' needs, there are, as has been implied in this whole discussion, many basic needs which are common to all youth growing up in the United States. All young people have need "to use their leisure time wisely" even though, for each individual, the satisfaction of that need may take different forms and require different educational experiences. For curriculum purposes, it is necessary to identify these broad basic needs. Having identified them so that preplanning can be done, the teacher is then obligated to study the particular group of students with which he is concerned in order that educational experiences may be planned to meet the wants and desires and the lacks and inadequacies as they are expressed within the group.

Techniques for Determining the Needs of Adolescents

Because of the dual nature of needs, curriculum-builders must consider both aspects when identifying the common needs of young people as a basis for the school's program. An understanding of the culture and its demands upon the individual and an understanding of adolescent growth and development are both essential if the curriculum is truly to meet the needs of youth. But since needs differ from community to community, from group to group, and even from individual to individual, it follows that a curriculum designed to meet the needs of adolescents would have to be planned with a particular group of students in mind. No two programs could be exactly alike even within the same school. The fact that someone has determined a student need in his school does not necessarily mean that all secondary-school youth

have that need. Needs arise out of a situation; and when the situation changes, the needs also change. Although it is valuable and legitimate to use the results of the work of sociologists and psychologists in identifying basic needs, each school should also seek to discover the particular needs of its students, for it is dangerous to assume that the needs of one group are exactly the same as those of another.

Thus, schools which have attempted to build curriculums to meet student needs have found it valuable to use one or more of the following techniques in determining them.[4]

1. *Studies of the activities and problems of society.*—Many studies have been made of modern society and of the problems, activities, hopes, and aspirations of the American people. Schools would be wise to make use of these studies, for they reveal many of the tensions and problems of young people. For example, George S. Counts, in *The Prospects of American Democracy*, sets forth as the fundamental needs of youth: an abiding faith in the democratic way of life and the ability to read, listen, look, and act with understanding in solving problems of contemporary life. To achieve these things, Counts believes, youth and the total population need knowledge and understanding of (*a*) the nature and history of man; (*b*) the story of American democracy; (*c*) the rise of industrial civilization; (*d*) the present structure of American society; (*e*) the contradictions and conflicts of the contemporary world; (*f*) the social ideas, philosophies, and programs now in competition; (*g*) the agencies and methods of propaganda in current use; and (*h*) the purposes and potentialities of American democracy.[5] Similar analyses of the problems of contemporary society have been made by other students of American life, for example, those made by the Beards,[6] Merriam,[7] Ogburn and Nimkoff,[8] and Chase.[9]

Another method which has proved effective for analyzing the needs of society is the case-study technique. The Lynds and a staff of trained workers made two studies, several years apart, of an American community which they called "Middletown." From the data which they gathered through observation, a study of records and documents, interviews, questionnaires, and conversations with people on the streets, at their business, and in their homes, they state facts and draw many conclusions and generalizations about American life from which the needs of youth may be inferred. The type of survey which the Lynds carried on and reported in *Middletown: A Study in American Culture*[10] and in *Middletown in Transition: A Study in Cultural Conflicts*[11] has been carried on by other sociologists and research workers in other communities. The studies made by John Dollard of *Caste and Class in a Southern Town*,[12] by W. Lloyd Warner and his associates of the

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life of an old New England community,[13] and by Constance M. Green of an industrial city[14] are examples of other case studies of modern American communities made by sociologists, anthropologists, and historians which throw much light on the needs of adolescents. Although in none of these studies are the findings stated in terms of needs, the needs of American citizens may be inferred from the activities, the frustrations, the achievements, and the hopes and desires of the people.

2. *Studies of youth made by psychologists.*—Equally valuable to schools attempting to determine the needs of adolescents are the research and writings of psychologists and others who have made intensive studies of young people. Although not based on original research, the work done by the Committee on the Relation of Emotion to the Educative Process has been particularly valuable in bringing together the best thinking and writing of experts from many fields. After extensive conferences, intensive study of published literature, visits to various institutions interested in child growth and development, and the reading of numerous case histories, the committee divided the needs into three categories: *physiological,* those that spring primarily out of structure—air, food, liquids, clothing to maintain proper temperature, shelter, elimination, rhythm of activity and rest, and sexual activity; *social* or *status,* needs necessary for establishing relationships with other persons in the culture—affection, "belongingness," and likeness to others; and *ego* or *integrative,* needs by which the individual develops a sense of worthy selfhood. Prescott states in the preliminary report of the committee that children need (*a*) to have contact with reality so they may grow in knowledge, understanding, and wisdom; (*b*) to achieve the mental organization which will result in behavior in harmony with actualities; (*c*) to be able to pattern experiences and generalize (progressive symbolization) therefrom; (*d*) to have increasing responsibility for initiating and regulating their own behavior; (*e*) to feel adequate in capacity and skill to meet a fair proportion of the situations they are called upon to face—to maintain a fair balance between success and failure; and (*f*) to have a feeling that their interests and welfare are bound up with the group: that they are the latest link in the unending chain of a developing people—commingling personal goals with the goals of the group so that neither is lost.[15]

The work of the Study of Adolescents under the direction of Caroline B. Zachry is also valuable because it focused primarily on the nature and needs of developing individuals in order to gain increased understanding of young people for the purpose of education. A staff composed of educators, psychologists, psychiatrists, physicians, anthropol-

ogists, and sociologists, with the use of various techniques for observ-
ing adolescents in many relationships in school and out-of-school
situations, came to the conclusion that "the process of growth from
childhood to adulthood in contemporary American culture groups
requires of young persons certain major adjustments in emotion and
conduct which are basic to later, adult adaptations."[16] The tasks gen-
erally confronting youth, the Study found, are adjustment to body
changes; adaptation to the sex rôle and the establishment of satisfactory
heterosexual relationships; adaptation to standards of life based upon
self-respect and consideration for others; emancipation from parental
and other adult control; formulation of life plans and the selection
of a vocation; favorable occupational adjustment and the attainment
of economic competence; participation in the life of the community
in an active, democratic, and ever maturing manner; and orientation
to marriage and the establishment of a home.[17]

Likewise, the work carried on by the Growth Study of Adolescents
at the University of California Institute of Child Welfare under the
direction of Dr. Harold Jones contributes much information about
boys and girls which is useful to those concerned with the diagnosis,
treatment, education, and guidance of adolescents. This study, like
the Harvard Growth Study, is particularly valuable because it is a
longitudinal as well as cross-sectional study of a large number of boys
and girls from childhood through adolescence. The quantity of data
collected by the staffs of these studies[18] on the physical development,
health, motor performance, sensory and perceptual acuity, intellectual
ability, special talents and disabilities, and social and emotional char-
acteristics adds much to an understanding of the needs of adolescents.

3. *Questionnaire to teachers.*—Exploring the ideas which teachers
have about the needs of students is one of the most immediate and
fruitful devices which the school can employ. Teachers who have
lived in the community for several years, who understand and love
children, and who are familiar with recent theories of child growth
and development usually have a good idea of the needs and problems
of the adolescents of a particular community. Schools using this tech-
nique will usually get a better response if they use a questionnaire
organized in some pattern rather than merely asking teachers "What do
you consider the needs of youth?" For example, the questionnaire
might be organized around areas of living, and teachers might be
asked to indicate the needs of youth in the area of personal develop-
ment, economic relationships, immediate personal-social relationships,
and the like; or it might be organized around desired outcomes, such
as social attitudes, reflective thinking, work habits, and study skills;

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or around subject-matter areas—the needs in the field of English, mathematics, or history. At Eugene, Oregon, the junior high school teachers used still another scheme for classifying needs. They drew up a tentative list of pupil needs by asking themselves: What are the problems which junior high school pupils have in performing the following functions necessary for social living: conserving human resources; conserving nonhuman resources; producing, distributing, and consuming goods and services; expressing and satisfying recreational, aesthetic, and spiritual needs; communicating; transporting; governing; and educating?[10] This list was then submitted to the entire faculty in order to get their concerted opinion on the needs of pre-adolescents and adolescents of junior high school age.

The curriculum committee of the Samuel Gompers Junior High School in Los Angeles went not only to the teachers of Gompers in making their needs survey, but also to the teachers of the senior high schools where Gompers students would go after leaving junior high school. The questionnaire to the Gompers teachers listed the various areas which are usually taught in junior high schools, together with factors affecting the learning situation. The teachers were asked to rate these according to their importance to the pupil. The questionnaire sent to the teachers in the high schools to which Gompers contributes listed skills, work habits, attitudes, and school subjects, and the teachers were asked to indicate for each whether or not, in their opinion, Gompers was adequately meeting the needs of its students.

4. *Questionnaires to students.*—Adolescents should certainly be consulted in any study of their needs and problems. Granted, of course, that adolescents are not omniscient even about themselves; that, due to their limited experience, they are often mistaken about their actual needs; and that they are sometimes afraid or hesitant about stating the problems of most vital concern to them—still, their opinion of what they believe to be their needs is one of the most reliable sources to which educators may turn. Because students are likely to be concerned only with the immediate, the question "What are your needs or your problems?" is not usually a very fruitful way of getting from them a statement of their needs. Better results are obtained if they are given a questionnaire that asks specific questions, such as: What do you want to know about consumer problems? What do you want to know about vocations? What do you want to know about health? Or a questionnaire similar to that given to teachers may be used, asking students to check problems, subjects, topics, or skills which are of concern to them. The Commission on Human Relations used the first type of questionnaire in finding out what students wanted to know about sex. *Life and*

Growth[20] was then prepared in answer to the questions which youth had raised.

Gompers Junior High School in Los Angeles also used a questionnaire to students in making its needs survey. Students were asked to indicate whether they were very much concerned, somewhat concerned, or not concerned with the 118 items listed. From the results of the survey, the faculty discovered that the following percentages of ninth-grade boys ranked these needs as the five most important to them:

77.6	I would like to know more about the training necessary for various jobs.
72.1	I would like to make better grades in school.
68.9	I want to find out what course is most suitable for me in high school.
65.4	I would like to find out what things I do best.
58.6	I would like to know how to speak and write good English.[21]

Seventh-grade girls who were given the same questionnaire, on the other hand, ranked as their first five needs:

72.9	I want to know how to get into the right crowd.
68.7	I want to know how to choose and keep worthwhile friends among boys and girls.
66.0	I would like to know how to get up before a group and give an oral report with ease.
66.0	I want to know how to do my share in all things.
65.1	I would like to find out the things I do best.

Ralph R. Fields carried on a similar study[22] in Santa Barbara Senior High School at Santa Barbara, California. His questionnaire was divided into personal and social problems, and students were asked to check for each problem whether or not (a) it was a problem to them; (b) the school should deal with it; and (c) the school was helping them with it. As the result of the questionnaire, Fields found that tenth-grade students need help in problems centering around orientation to school,[23] personal-social relationships, home relationships, and problems related to establishing independence; that eleventh-grade students have problems closely related to study skills and work habits in school; and that twelfth-grade students are concerned with planning for marriage and home life, finding time for leisure reading, and solving school problems. All high-school students, according to Fields, are concerned with planning educational careers, with personal-social relationships, personality and character development, health, and miscellaneous school problems. Forty per cent or more of the students said they needed fewer required subjects and more assistance in such problems as vocational planning, studying, planning for civic life, living at school, and personality development.

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The list of problems compiled by the teachers of the Eugene junior high schools was likewise submitted to the students in an effort not only to determine what junior high school students thought their needs to be, but also to find out the differences, if any, in the needs and interests of seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-graders. The results of the questionnaire show that seventh-grade students in Eugene seem to be interested primarily in problems purely personal in nature—self-improvement, and in problems related to their immediate environment—the home, the school, and the community. Eighth-graders seem to have no definite interest pattern which would differentiate their needs from those of seventh- or ninth-graders. They are still concerned primarily with problems of personal adjustment; but their needs, as expressed on the questionnaire, were varied and fluctuating, reflecting, no doubt, a great difference in the maturation of the students and an instability similar to that reported by other observers of students at this grade level. The ninth-grade students were interested in a greater variety of problems and showed a decided increase in interest in social problems. Problems dealing with unemployment, immigration, the consumer, civil rights, leisure time, war, industrial development, and the unfortunate all rank higher with ninth-graders than with seventh- and eighth-graders. While seventh-graders were particularly interested in problems dealing with self-improvement, ninth-graders were interested primarily in establishing better immediate social relationships. Junior high school students at all three grade levels, according to the responses of the Eugene pupils, are concerned with how to make friends, how young people can train for jobs, how to get a better allowance, how to improve their conversation, how to speak more correctly, how to keep America out of war, how to meet people without becoming embarrassed, and how to prevent crime. These problems ranked high with the students at all three grade levels.

5. *Questionnaire to parents and laymen.*—The coöperation of lay groups, especially parents, should also be utilized in formulating a list of needs for curriculum purposes. Although laymen are often restricted in their conception of the needs of youth and are inclined to think the way they were educated is best, still, once stimulated to think about needs in terms of the culture and individual development, they can often supplement the ideas of teachers and students.

The curriculum committee at Gompers Junior High School, in their needs survey, submitted questionnaires both to parents and to laymen and organized groups in the community. The response to the questions in Table 1 revealed the attitude of parents toward the school program and proved useful to the Gompers faculty in their curriculum

TABLE 1

RESPONSE OF PARENTS OF GOMPERS PUPILS
ON THE TYPE OF PROGRAM DESIRED

QUESTION	PERCENTAGE RESPONDING			
	Grade VII	Grade VIII	Grade IX	Total
1. By having children work together in class committees and participate in the government of the school, the school provides experience in democratic living. What is your attitude toward these experiences?				
a) Should be more experiences....	43.2	46.2	46.6	48.4
b) Present practice satisfactory....	55.0	54.5	55.1	50.6
c) Practice should be decreased....	1.8	1.3	0	1.0
2. Which of the following methods do you think is the more important in teaching children about democracy?				
a) The study of American history..	5.9	10.7	12.0	9.8
b) Participation in school government, plus a study of American history......................	94.1	89.3	88.0	90.4
3. What is your attitude toward excursions into the community in connection with class work?				
a) The number should be increased	66.6	62.0	51.8	59.7
b) Present number adequate......	33.3	31.0	46.2	37.2
c) Should be fewer excursions.....	0	2.8	1.8	1.6
d) Should be no excursions.......	0	5.2	0	1.6
4. Suppose children decided after a study of recreation that a recreational center of their own was necessary. How would you regard their making an effort to remedy the situation in the community?				
a) Favor......................	78.0	77.4	69.4	75.0
b) Favor in some cases..........	20.0	15.0	27.1	21.1
c) Doubtful...................	2.0	1.4	3.5	2.3
d) Do not favor...............	0	4.8	0	1.6
5. What is your attitude toward the present requirement of no homework in the seventh and eighth grades and four hours per week in the ninth grade?				
a) Too much..................	14.6	14.5	7.1	....
b) About right................	72.5	62.9	75.0	....
c) Too little..................	22.9	22.6	17.9	....
6. Do you believe that such skills as writing, spelling, and penmanship are being taught adequately enough to meet the needs of your child?				
a) Yes.......................	52.6	57.1	65.5	58.4
b) No........................	47.4	42.9	34.5	41.6
7. Do you believe that enough arithmetics being taught to meet the needs of you child?				
a) Yes.......................	69.6	61.2	64.2	65.0
b) No........................	30.4	38.8	35.8	35.0

TABLE 1—*Continued*

QUESTION	PERCENTAGE RESPONDING			
	Grade VII	Grade VIII	Grade IX	Total
8. Do you believe it is more important to help a child understand himself, learn to get along with others, aim toward higher standards, think for himself, and take care of himself than to learn lessons out of textbooks?				
a) Yes	82.7	76.1	75.4	78.1
b) No	17.3	23.9	24.6	29.9
9. Do you feel that students are getting enough *history* and facts in junior high school?				
a) Yes	64.7	62.5	59.4	62.2
b) No	35.3	37.5	40.6	37.8
10. Do you feel that in the teaching of history, teachers should emphasize the present and its problems and give less attention to the past?				
a) Yes	81.9	83.9	78.9	81.6
b) No	17.8	16.1	21.1	18.4
11. Do you believe the source of a child's learning should be textbooks only?				
a) Yes	8.7	3.7	2.2	4.9
b) No	91.3	96.3	97.8	95.1

revision. The problems ranked first in order of importance by the parents of students in all three grades were (*a*) getting along happily with others; (*b*) developing wholesome personalities; (*c*) choosing a vocation; (*d*) practicing democratic living; (*e*) practicing proper health habits; (*f*) learning ideals of democracy; (*g*) safety in home, school, and community; (*h*) worthy use of leisure time; (*i*) family relationship; and (*j*) sex education.[24]

The staff of the Pasadena Public Schools, under the direction of Dr. Margaret Bennett, also sent questionnaires to parents as well as to the teachers and junior high school students in ascertaining the growth needs of Pasadena junior high school pupils. The returns from 2195 parents indicated that they believed the needs of youth to be: (*a*) training in skills of reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic; (*b*) help in choosing a vocation; (*c*) help in developing character and wholesome personality qualities; (*d*) pupil development through activities; (*e*) development of good health habits.[25]

6. *Studies of out-of-school youth.*—Another technique which schools have found fruitful in determining the needs of adolescents has been

the study of the problems which high-school graduates have been forced to meet on leaving school. Numerous studies have been made of out-of-school youth which schools will find useful in making their own surveys. Among the most comprehensive are those made by the American Youth Commission and reported in their numerous publications.[26] In the final report, *Youth and the Future,* the commission concludes that the basic needs of youth are the needs for (a) self-direction and self-dependence, (b) satisfactory relationship to other young people, (c) personal achievement, (d) experiences that are interesting and occasionally exciting, (e) adjustment to the realities of life, (f) adjustment to out-of-school environment, (g) adaptation to vocational life, (h) satisfactory use of leisure time, (i) mental and physical health, (j) orientation to marriage and the establishment of a home, (k) understanding and feeling at home in the world in which they live, and (l) a philosophy which gives meaning and unity to life.[27]

The faculty and students of Fortuna Union High School, Fortuna, California, carried on their own survey of the needs of out-of-school youth by sending a questionnaire to the graduates of their high school for the years 1939 and 1940. The percentage of graduates who reported that they believed the school had done a good, fair, or poor job in meeting their needs is reported in Table 2. In listing areas in which the school could be of greater service to the young people now in school, the graduates mentioned as of prime importance: (1) educational opportunities to meet individual needs, (2) personality development, (3) family life, (4) fundamentals of the English language, (5) leisure time.

7. *Studies of the community.*—If the needs of a particular group of young people are to be met, it is necessary to make a study of the local community to supplement the studies made of typical American communities by experts. Local studies are particularly useful in identifying the types of problems, attitudes, tensions, and needs which are important in a particular community and therefore significant for study in the school, but which may not be characteristic of American culture in general. The problem of certain minority groups is crucial in certain localities and not in others; labor problems and consumer needs require different emphasis in rural communities from that in large city high schools.

Many of the techniques employed by sociologists and research workers in their case studies of American communities can be used by schools in making their own survey of the activities of the people in their community; of their problems, critical tensions, recreational and health needs, and vocational opportunities; and of the prejudices,

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TABLE 2*

EFFECTIVENESS OF FORTUNA UNION HIGH SCHOOL IN MEETING
STUDENT NEEDS ACCORDING TO OPINION OF GRADUATES

Needs	Good (%)	Fair (%)	Poor (%)
a) Locating a job.....................	57	36	7.2
b) Developing personality.............	54	40.4	5.5
c) Spending leisure time wisely........	37.8	52.2	9.6
d) Sex education.....................	48	37	15
e) Health education..................	68	29	2.4
f) Consumer problems................	56	39	4.9
g) Getting along with other people......	68	31	1.2
h) Developing a responsibility for community affairs......................	32	53	15
i) Effective mastery of English for everyday use and enjoyment..............	44	45	11
j) Effective mastery of mathematics for everyday use......................	47	40	13

* Report of Fortuna Union High School to Stanford Social Education Investigation, October 1941.

fears, beliefs, and superstitions which motivate them. These techniques are discussed in detail in Chapter 8. Schools wishing to make a study of their own community will also find helpful suggestions in Chambers and Bell's *How to Make a Community Youth Survey*,[28] Joanna Colcord's *Your Community*,[29] and Henry Harap's "Outline for a Community Survey."[30]

8. *Use of studies made by other schools and educators.*—By the use of several of the techniques discussed above, a number of schools and educators have identified what they believe to be the needs of adolescents growing up in American culture. Caswell and Campbell, for example, state in their book on curriculum development:

There are four principal bases upon which the selection of potential subject-matter may be made: (1) significance to an organized field of knowledge; (2) significance to an understanding of contemporary life; (3) adult use; and (4) child interest and use. The first two of these bases rest largely on tradition and judgment. The last two may be defined by scientific procedures.[31]

The authors review numerous studies made to determine adult use and child interest. These are summarized in a form easily used by curriculum-makers. They conclude that

. . . these and other phases of our national life involve relationships of such general importance and of a nature so intricate that only careful education can develop individuals capable of dealing with the resultant problems.[32]

Eurich and Wrenn drew on their own experience and on published and unpublished research studies in the various fields to formulate a concept of student needs based on their philosophy. They report that

needs . . . mean "life demands," or the present and probable future demands of living in a society that includes such a wide variety of things as to care for one's health; to get along with other people; to marry, have children, and provide a wholesome home life for them; to participate constructively in community life; to derive satisfactions as well as economic rewards from a vocation; to know how, when, where, and for what to spend money; to have a personal, but not a selfish, philosophy that provides the basis for forming judgments and that serves as a criterion of values.[33]

The Salt Lake City teachers, as a result of intensive study, formulated and officially adopted a statement of needs to serve as a guide in the planning of school experiences for the boys and girls of that community. They state that youth need to develop:

1. A deep and abiding faith in democracy as a social ideal and mode of life, and a willingness to accept the responsibilities of an informed and effective citizenship;
2. A personality which is well adjusted emotionally;
3. A functional knowledge of desirable health practices;
4. A pattern of moral values which is conducive to ethical conduct;
5. The ability to relax through recreational activities and make wise use of leisure time;
6. Aesthetic satisfactions through insight and sensitivity to artistic qualities of living;
7. A command of the social graces and a desire to use them;
8. Unique powers of creative expression;
9. Understandings of significant generalizations regarding man's environment—both natural and social;
10. An ability to think clearly and critically;
11. An effective command of the basic study skills;
12. The ability to make satisfactory social and economic adjustments in home and community relationships;
13. Insights necessary for the wise choice of a vocation;
14. An appreciation of the dignity of work;
15. An eagerness to learn.[34]

It is obvious, from the various ways in which needs have been stated in the studies reviewed, that needs are interpreted and inferred according to the beliefs and philosophies of the investigators. The values held by the investigators, together with their training and background, determined to a large degree the kind of needs they 'looked for and, hence, the conclusions they drew. Psychologists find the needs of adolescents to be chiefly "inner" impulses, tensions, and desires, while sociologists see needs primarily in terms of society. Needs are what someone *infers* that a student ought to do, be, acquire, or want, from someone's observation of an actual situation. Thus, when an investi-

gator, a teacher, and a school system state that students "need" something, they make their inferences on the basis of some value judgment or concept of what would be desirable for the individual. For a school to accept a list of needs determined by another would, therefore, mean that it should also accept the philosophy of that school and its values. In using the work of other schools and other investigators, teachers need to be conscious of this fact and should recognize also that needs do not arise in the abstract but develop as individuals live and grow in specific situations, as they come in contact and conflict with institutions and people. Needs are never static. They vary not only for different groups but also for the same group and individual at different times. As one need is satisfied, others arise. Needs are thus ever changing, and teachers must be constantly on the alert to recognize new needs as they appear.

Although every teacher can use with profit the studies made by others, he is obligated, since no two groups are exactly alike, to make his own study of the students in his class if he wishes to meet their particular needs. Such studies involve gathering data about the socio-economic background of the students; their family history; their educational experiences; their health and physical development; their aptitudes and abilities; their problems, interests, social attitudes, study skills and work habits, social adjustment, and emotional maturity; and their goals and purposes. This information can be gathered by observation, visits to the home, interviews, questionnaires, autobiographies, tests and evaluation instruments of various kinds, physical examinations, and case histories. Cumulative records from the guidance office can furnish much of the information about individual students, but where necessary evidence is lacking or is too limited to be of value, the teacher will need to gather the information himself. The more a teacher knows about his group and about individuals within the group, the better he can plan educational experiences to meet their needs. Many of the techniques described in the section on evaluation can be used by teachers in diagnosing the needs and interests of their students.

The Rôle of Social Education in Meeting the Needs of Youth

The identification of the basic personal-social needs common to all adolescents growing up in America and the discovery of the unique needs of a particular student or group constitute, however, only the first step in the development of a program of social education. Before the curriculum can be developed, it is necessary to classify the needs which have been determined so that relationships may be observed and important needs given due consideration. Since needs are not discrete

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entities, classification, though necessary, is both arbitrary and artificial. Each investigator in the studies cited in the discussion of techniques for determining needs used a classification which suited his particular purpose. Any organization used by social-education teachers should likewise be in keeping with their purpose and their educational philosophy. It should make apparent the relationships and values which the school considers important, and it should provide for a great deal of flexibility so as to care for individual needs and the greatest amount of personal development. Most important of all, the type of classification used should be one in which the problems and purposes of the students are apparent so that learning becomes purposeful and the student sees the relationship between what goes on in school and the satisfaction of his needs. If this relationship is clear, then the student recognizes the importance of understandings, skills, attitudes, and other objectives in achieving his goals and satisfying his needs.

Some schools have classified needs on the basis of the major activities involved: for example, all the needs related to reading would be grouped together, and all those pertaining to writing, computing, and the other "fundamental skills" would form additional categories. Other schools have classified needs according to subject-matter areas, social processes basic in all group living, activities or social functions in which all individuals are engaged, themes or concepts which epitomize the problems of contemporary society, educational values sought, or large areas of human relationship. Needs thus classified can define the breadth or scope of the curriculum, and educational experiences at each grade level can be provided to help youth meet their needs in each category. The advantages and disadvantages of these methods of classifying needs are discussed in Chapter 4, where the scope of the curriculum is discussed at length.

The social-education teacher concerned with helping youth meet their needs and solve problems which are real and vital to them thus must:

1. Understand child growth and development and have a knowledge of the common needs of youth at a particular grade level. Each teacher should know "enough about the organism in his charge to treat it not only with the sympathy to which the child is accustomed, but with the technical knowledge and skill that grows out of long research and thorough scholarship."[85]

2. Know the background and unique needs of the students in a particular class.

3. Organize the needs identified so that curricular experiences can be provided in such a way that students recognize the relationship between

all activities carried on in the classroom and the satisfaction of their needs and goals.

4. Provide a classroom environment and situation which will arouse interest in the area of social living studied at the grade level.

5. Provide and organize experiences so that the more important unique needs of individuals and common needs of the group are met and so that socially undesirable drives and impulses are sublimated.

6. Stimulate the expansion of interests in the direction of the development of the maximum well-being of the individual and the group.

7. Use content and experiences in guiding students to satisfy their needs so as to develop the characteristics of behavior essential to the achievement of democratic values within the realities of modern culture. In other words, the teacher will use the motivation provided by need-satisfying activities to achieve the objectives toward which social education is directed.

3

SOCIAL COMPETENCE AND HUMAN BEHAVIOR

Social education in the secondary school is concerned with helping adolescents to establish desirable and happy personal and social relationships with both their age-mates and adults, develop a value pattern which will give direction and purpose to their lives, and achieve the competence necessary to make a positive and worth-while contribution to social living. Social education thus encompasses the total school program. It is both general education and special education. No one subject or department can claim that it alone is concerned with social education or that it can assume the total responsibility for developing the behavior characteristics needed by young people if they are to make satisfactory adjustment and develop the understandings, values, and skills needed for social competence. The social studies, however, because of the inherent nature of the materials and subject matter with which they deal, must play a major rôle in any program of social education designed to help youth assume their places as mature and effective members in democratic society.

The direction which social education will take in a school, the type of curriculum which is offered, the way in which it is organized, and the emphasis placed on different educational experiences depend in large part on the educational objectives which the school hopes to attain.

Traditionally Stated Objectives

Methods Commonly Used in Stating Objectives

Teachers and curriculum-builders have long been concerned with educational objectives. Professional literature abounds in them. Prior to 1930, long lists with as many as 500 to 800 specific aims were often stated for a single subject field.[1] One investigator is even reported to have found a list containing 1448 objectives for social studies alone.[2] Lists were prepared and handed down to teachers by college professors of education, members of state departments of education, supervisors, curriculum experts, and committees. An examination of the lists found in numerous textbooks, courses of study, and units of instruction is

certain to reveal one of the reasons for the great discrepancy known to exist between written statements of objectives and actual classroom practices.[3]

Investigators in this area have repeatedly commented on the nebulosity of the verbiage, the prevalence of slogans and stereotypes, the prodigious number of the statements, and the failure to differentiate among the objectives of different courses and different grade levels.[4]

Either the objectives were stated in such vague and glorified terms that teachers did not know what they meant, let alone how to achieve them, or the lists were so long and detailed that teachers were overwhelmed by the task expected of them. Consequently, classroom instruction has usually proceeded as if it were completely divorced from the aims and objectives stated in the course of study or on even the curriculum guide sheets and lesson plans.

A second reason for the failure of traditional statements of objectives to affect classroom practices is that objectives have usually been stated in terms of the teacher's purposes, of the function of the social studies, or as trait names rather than in terms of the change in the behavioral patterns of young people which, it is hoped, will take place as a result of their educational experience. In 1928, Miller analyzed the objectives for teaching history from 1888 to 1927 as stated in textbooks, committee reports, association proceedings, and articles in professional magazines. He found the following ten objectives most frequently stated:

Objective	Frequency
1. To discipline the mind	189
2. To promote social efficiency	165
3. To explain the present in the light of the past	142
4. To understand the development concept in history	115
5. To give ethical training	106
6. To give training in simple historical research	96
7. To inculcate ideas of patriotism	83
8. To train for citizenship	80
9. To give cultural training	66
10. To promote tolerance	56

While Miller found that the objective "to discipline the mind" ranked first throughout the entire period, more recent lists gave it less emphasis and mentioned more frequently "to explain the present in the light of the past" and "to train for citizenship."[5] Although this change in emphasis is encouraging, the generality of the objectives and the focus on the teacher rather than on the student give the teacher no criteria for judging how successful his teaching has been in terms of changed behavior on the part of the boys and girls enrolled in his class.

Even the Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association concluded as recently as 1936 that the generally accepted objectives of the social studies are obligations placed on the teacher and the social studies. They state:

1. *It is the purpose of the social studies to give to pupils the truest and most realistic knowledge that is possible of the community, state, nation, and world—the social and physical setting—in which they live and are to live and make their way.* The social studies are to show as best they can the relation of mankind to its physical environment (social geography) and then how industry agriculture, government, and social organizations, such as chambers of com merce, trade unions, granges, and political parties, are actually carried on. They are to do this in order that pupils, when leaving the schools, may take part actively and effectively in social life and institutions. . . .

2. *A second purpose of instruction in the social studies grows out of the first, namely, preparation of pupils for promoting a wiser and more effective cooperation among regions, areas, individuals, groups, communities, states, and nations—a cooperation interracial, interreligious, and intereconomic.* . . . On the fact of interdependence we generally agree. Since this is true the social studies are bound to develop the knowledge, skills, ideas, and ideals appropriate to the contemporary order. Should teachers do otherwise they would fail to prepare pupils to take part in life as they find it on leaving school; indeed as they find it in the world around them while they are in school.

3. *A third purpose of instruction in the social studies is to develop character: to give the pupils a love of truth, an appreciation of the beautiful, a bent toward the good, and a desire and will to use knowledge for beneficent social ends.* . . . most school authorities hold that one of the ends of instruction in the social studies is to foster the nobler traits of human nature: the will to good, the will to a life generous and thoughtful, capacity for sacrifice in common interests, loyalty to many duties, as well as skills in the sciences, arts, and ways of making a living, individual and community.

4. *A fourth purpose of the social studies, altho it may come under the head of method, is both a purpose and a prerequisite to the attainment of other purposes; it is training in the intellectual processes indispensable to the functioning of society.* What are these processes? They include: acquisition of knowledge concerning sources of information respecting social questions and realities, skill in the use of these sources, skill in selecting, verifying, and checking these sources for authenticity, skill in exploring and stating various sides of controversial issues, and skill in discussing and weighing them. . . . It should, therefore, be reckoned a prime purpose of the instruction in the social studies to give training in the exercise of analytical, critical, verifying, and constructive powers thru school practise in numerous concrete cases, historical and contemporary. Here history is especially useful in that it is more remote from the heats and distempers of contemporary life.[6]

These are admirable statements of the *function* of the social studies,

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but they fail to give teachers much help in the determination of the behaviors essential for social competence or in the selection of the materials and activities which will assist adolescents in achieving their goals. Realistic knowledge, coöperation, character, and intellectual processes are worthy objectives; but, if educational experiences are to be effectively planned, the teacher needs operational definitions of them in terms of the type of behavior which an individual exhibits who has realistic knowledge, is coöperative, possesses an admirable character, and uses intellectual processes. Only for the last of these has the commission suggested the behaviors involved.

The Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association set forth as the fundamental purpose of the social sciences

the creation of rich, many-sided personalities, equipped with practical knowledge and inspired by ideals so that they can make their way and fulfill their mission in a changing society which is part of a world complex.

Although the commission defines "rich and many-sided personalities"— i.e., those who are informed about a wide range of materials, both immediate and remote; are firm of will; are imbued by the highest aspirations of the human race; possess skills necessary for acquiring information by the use of encyclopedias, authorities, documents, sources, and statistical collections; are able to analyze and interpret data, draw conclusions and apply them; practice habits of personal cleanliness, industry, courtesy, promptness, accuracy, and effective coöperation in common undertakings; show respect for the rights and opinions of others, zeal for truth about many things large and small, pride in the achievement of individuals, communities, America, and mankind, admiration for heroic and disinterested deeds, faith in the power of men and women to improve themselves and their surroundings, loyalty to ideals, a vivid sense of responsibility in all relations, a lively interest in community affairs and a desire to participate in the world's work far and near; have will power, courage, imagination, aesthetic appreciation and independence of judgment—the definition is filled with many trait names which need to be defined operationally before they can have much influence on educational practices.[7]

Weaknesses of Traditionally Stated Objectives

Objectives are the goals, end-products, or conditions which the individual strives to achieve. To be effective in directing classroom procedures, objectives must be clearly and concretely stated so that both teachers and students will know the purpose for undertaking particular activities, for including specific subject matter, and for methods and techniques employed in organizing the class and undertaking educa-

tional experiences. That objectives in the past have frequently failed to have much influence on classroom procedures is thus due to the fact that too often:

a) They were in such nebulous and ambiguous terms that they were meaningless to teachers and often even to the curriculum committees who drew them up.

b) The lists were so long and unwieldy that they were more frustrating than helpful to teachers.

c) They were stated as functions of the school, the social studies, or the teacher or as traits of character such as honesty, dependability, good citizenship, courage, and will power rather than as the goals or outcomes expected in terms of student behavior.

d) The lists were constructed by national, state, or local committees, curriculum experts, or supervisors and handed down to the teacher to put into operation. Consequently, they did not embody the thinking of the teacher or the students and in many cases were never completely accepted by either as the goals which they hoped to achieve.

e) Such lists of objectives have tended to become static rather than changing as conditions have changed, as goals have been accomplished, and as new ones have risen. Objectives, to be effective in channeling and intensifying experience, must be dynamic, changing to keep pace with the maturing and developing student and responding to new factors in the environment.

f) Students have had no opportunity to participate in formulating the objectives and often have been kept ignorant of the purposes the teacher was attempting to achieve. Teachers, on the other hand, have too often been unaware of and even uninterested in student goals so that students and teachers have worked frequently at cross purposes. This factor in a large measure accounts for the tensions and maladjustment so repeatedly seen in classrooms. Only as student and teacher work harmoniously for the same objectives can the maximum learning take place and educational goals be realized.

Guiding Principles for Formulating Objectives

1. *Objectives should agree with the school's philosophy and democratic principles.*—If objectives are to be a significant factor in directing and determining educational experiences, they must be in harmony with the philosophy of the school and with the ideals and practices of the culture in which the school operates. Schools in a democracy should have very different objectives from those in a totalitarian state where the educational purpose is to develop individuals who obey, who conform without question, and who enthusiastically accept regimentation and the subordination of individual rights and privileges to the

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interest of the state. Schools in a democracy should, on the other hand, aim to develop individuals who exhibit the behavior necessary for mature and effective participation in a democratic society—individuals who are coöperative, tolerant, scientifically minded, and socially sensitive to the needs and problems of others; who respect the basic civil liberties; who have faith in the intelligence of the common man to solve social problems; who respect leadership and authority; and who are self-directing.[8] Schools which accept as part of their philosophy the democratic ideal of individual dignity and worth will aim to help each boy and girl make satisfactory and happy personal-social adjustment and obtain optimum personal development. Thus, the first principle in formulating school objectives is that they should be in harmony with the underlying philosophy of the school.

2. *Objectives should be formulated by those who use them.*—To function effectively in the school's program, objectives must be the outgrowth of the deliberations of the entire teaching staff. It is only as teachers think through together the philosophy of the school and attempt to implement it in the school program that they become conscious of the need for a clear statement of the goals and purposes for which they are all working and on which they agree. Those objectives which are the concern of the total school, and in the development of which concerted school effort is necessary, should be formulated by the total teaching group—not only to insure coöperative endeavor in realizing them but also in order to ascertain whether all significant aspects of student behavior have been considered. With the recent emphasis upon the "total personality" of the student, this approach in the formulation of the school's objectives becomes increasingly important.

Although the entire school is concerned with an objective, it does not follow that a particular subject-matter area or, for that matter, a definite course may not be held more responsible for it than others. The development of individuals who "speak clearly and effectively" is certainly a major concern of the entire school, but speech classes may be organized to give special emphasis to this behavior, and all English classes, where verbal activities predominate, will undoubtedly give more attention to its realization than will mechanical-drawing or physical-education classes. Thus, in addition to the general objectives of the school, each subject-matter area will need to specify the goals which it plans to emphasize. These may either amplify some of the objectives on which the total school is working or add to them, but they should be in harmony with the school's philosophy and the general objectives and not in opposition to them.

Each class will in turn need to set up the goals toward which it intends to work. Although the objectives for two or more classes in American history will undoubtedly be similar, it need not follow that they will be exactly alike. Groups differ just as individuals within the group differ; and objectives should reflect the differences which exist in needs, interests, and problems. This, of course, means that students should participate in formulating class objectives and should be encouraged to state, in addition, individual objectives on which they wish to concentrate. The teacher, not arbitrarily but as an adviser and counselor, has the responsibility and obligation of helping students broaden their goals so that they are in harmony with the personal-social needs of the group, with the school's objectives, and with democratic ideals. The second principle, therefore, to keep in mind in drawing up objectives is that they should be determined by those who are to use them: the entire staff should formulate the school objectives; the teachers of the social-studies department, those for the social studies; the teacher and the students, those of the class and unit; and the student, with the guidance of the teacher, his own individual objectives. Only as each individual has clearly in mind the objectives which he hopes to achieve will maximum development take place. Each educational experience can then be appraised in terms of how valuable it is in the realization of the end-goal.

3. *Objectives should be stated behaviorally.*—A third principle to be considered in making objectives more functional is that they should be stated in operational terms so that the behavior expected is clearly defined and observable, thus making it possible to diagnose and appraise individual strengths and weaknesses. This means, of course, that objectives must be stated in terms of changes in *student behavior* which, it is hoped, the school program will produce, rather than as something which the teacher or school should do. "To develop competent citizens" is obviously a function of the school, but teachers and students need to know the kinds of behavior involved in being a competent citizen if they are to direct their efforts toward that end. Goal-satisfying activities cannot be planned and no clear and adequate appraisal of the student's growth in this objective can be made until the objective has been analyzed into specific behaviors so that teachers know what behaviors they aim to develop. Certainly it would be more meaningful to both students and teacher if they agreed that a "competent citizen" is one who is interested in and concerned about significant social, political, and economic problems; who analyzes and evaluates all evidence pertinent to an understanding of a problem before reaching a decision; and who, having drawn a conclusion, acts upon it within the

limits of his ability and opportunity. If they also agreed that a competent citizen is concerned about the welfare of others, acts with consideration for others, assumes responsibility for his share of group activity, uses his talents for social good, and does not speak disparagingly of others, then these behaviors would also need to be developed. Having clearly defined the behaviors involved, both the students and the teacher would have a basis for evaluating the progress made in achieving this objective. Any attempt to appraise the growth of young people toward the outcomes which the school sets up as desirable necessitates a redefining of those objectives in operational terms so that they are meaningful to both students and teachers.

4. *Objectives need to be organized in a meaningful pattern.*—Group objectives, stated as changes in student behavior which the program of the school aims to develop, may prove long and unwieldy. Some classification is therefore necessary in order to see that all important phases of the individual's development have been considered and in order that the educational program may be organized in as meaningful a way as possible. If, for example, the total staff is concerned that adolescents develop a "broad pattern of interests," it is important for the total staff to know what interests are being emphasized in various phases of the school's program and how each student is responding to them, in order that overstimulation and strain on some boys and girls may be avoided and "new and productive interests"[9] developed in others. Many different schemes of organization have been used in classifying objectives. It is important in whatever scheme is selected that the categories chosen be comprehensive enough to include all the characteristics of personality and yet definite enough to differentiate between them.

In setting up his study of experimental and conventional schools, Wrightstone[10] classified the objectives or aspects of behavior which he set out to appraise as follows:

A. *Intellectual Factors*
Recall or recognition of facts, concepts, names, dates, etc., in social studies, natural sciences, mathematics, languages, and arts
Obtaining data in social studies and natural sciences
Organizing data in social studies and natural sciences
Interpreting data in social studies and natural sciences
Applying generalizations to events in social studies and natural sciences
B. *Dynamic Factors*
Civic beliefs and attitudes
Science beliefs and attitudes
Personal adjustment attitudes
School and social adjustment attitudes

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C. *Social Performance Factors*
   Self-initiated factors
   Cooperative activities
   Recitational activities
D. *Physiological Factors*
   Physical fitness index

The Santa Barbara County elementary teachers[11] found it helpful to define their objectives in terms of:

1. Self-respect
2. Creativeness
3. Scientific attitude
4. Cooperativeness
5. Responsibility
6. Social effectiveness

Still another classification was used by the thirty schools in the Eight-Year Study sponsored by the Commission on the Relation of School and College.[12] They found it convenient to group their objectives in some ten major categories:

1. The development of effective methods of thinking
2. The cultivation of useful work habits and study skills
3. The inculcation of social attitudes
4. The acquisition of a wide range of significant interests
5. The development of increased appreciation of music, art, literature, and other aesthetic experiences
6. The development of social sensitivity
7. The development of better personal-social adjustment
8. The acquisition of important information
9. The development of physical health
10. The development of a consistent philosophy of life

The Educational Policies Commission[13] identified four groups of objectives:

1. The Objectives of Self-Realization
2. The Objectives of Human Relationships
3. The Objectives of Economic Efficiency
4. The Objectives of Civic Responsibility

In the first group the objectives listed describe the educated person; in the second, the educated member of the family and community group; in the third, the educated producer or consumer; and in the fourth, the educated citizen.[14]

In classifying their objectives, the teachers in the Stanford Social Education Investigation decided to organize them around the basic understandings, values, and skills needed for effective participation in a democratic society. Although this pattern varied among the participating schools, in general the objectives were classified somewhat as follows:

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1. Understandings—knowledge, generalizations, and concepts
2. Values
   a) Social attitudes
   b) Appreciations
   c) Interests
   d) Social and personal adjustment
3. Skills
   a) Work habits and basic social skills
   b) Critical thinking
   c) Creativeness

The interrelatedness of these three aspects of behavior is seen when one considers that the general objective of social education is to develop citizens who (1) understand our changing society; (2) possess a sound framework of values and ideals which indicate what ought to be, set goals for the individual, and give direction to his actions; and (3) have the necessary competence—skills and abilities—to participate in group living in such ways as to make changes in the direction of the desired values and ideals.

Behavioral Objectives

Advantages of Behavioral Objectives

The bad repute into which the term *objectives* has fallen among many classroom teachers is overcome when objectives are seen as behavioral changes which can be observed and evaluated rather than as functions of the school or as trait names. Stated in behavioral terms, objectives give teachers and students something tangible to use in appraising student growth. Content and materials can be selected, activities and classroom procedures can be determined, on the basis of how they will affect student growth in the direction of the desired behaviors. Activities which do not lead toward the realization of one or more of the objectives can be screened out, for no activity has value unless it is a goal-satisfying activity which contributes to desirable changes in behavior.

Suppose, for example, that the teachers of social education in a school decide that coöperation is a characteristic of an effective democratic citizen which they wish to develop and suppose, then, that a class of students, together with the teacher, defines a student who is coöperative as one who:

   a) Works well with a group or committee
   b) Respects constituted authority
   c) Recognizes and carries out his share of responsibility
   d) Supports group and school activities

e) Volunteers to bring in additional data or help in group projects

f) Meets his obligations promptly and to the best of his ability

g) Adjusts his interests to the best interests of the group

h) Treats others and their ideas with respect and courtesy[15]

These are all behaviors which are observable in the classroom and they are objectives which, if accepted by the teacher and students, will determine the way in which classroom activities and procedures will need to be organized. Learning will not be confined to textbook reading, written exercises, and recitation. Opportunities will need to be provided for students to work together in committees in gathering and presenting data, for informal discussions in which students have an opportunity to challenge one another's thinking and exchange ideas and viewpoints, for student-planned activities and projects rather than teacher-initiated procedures, for individual research and contributions to the thinking of the group, as well as for a concerted group attack upon a problem in an atmosphere of mutual assistance and good will. Young people learn to be coöperative only as they have opportunity to practice coöperation in their daily living, and teachers who believe that this behavior is a desirable characteristic for democratic citizens to possess are obligated to set up situations in their classrooms in which coöperative endeavor can be experienced.[16] Thus behavioral objectives form definite criteria against which to screen the activities of the class, the materials used, and the subject matter. Those experiences which lead to the development of the behaviors defined in the objectives will be retained; those which do not will be discarded.

As teachers seek situations in which they can observe the behaviors which they have defined as essential for democratic living, they often discover that the traditionally organized classroom requires changing and that some of the subject matter which they have previously considered necessary is of limited value. Behavioral objectives thus become the determiners of the activities and content of the curriculum; they act both as a selective factor and as a directive in classroom procedures. More than that, they provide a motivating force for learning. Activities become meaningful as students see their relationship to goals which they have helped define and which are important to them in terms of their needs and problems.

Examples of Objectives Stated Behaviorally

1. *School objectives.*—The objectives for the Pasadena Junior High Schools were developed through the coöperative effort of the teachers in each of the five schools in the city. Tentative lists were developed by each school to be submitted to the Central Committee on Purposes,

composed of one representative from each school, a representative from both the administrative and the counselor groups, the Curriculum Coordinator for Secondary Schools, the Director of Guidance, and the Director of Research and Evaluation. The Central Committee coördinated the thinking of each school group and formulated the list adopted for use in all the schools. As the list developed, the various faculties had opportunity to discuss, criticize, and amend the list. Their suggestions were carried back to the Central Committee by their representative so that the final list embodied the best thinking of the entire group. The Committee on Purposes is a standing committee, for the Pasadena teachers realize that objectives are not static and that they must be changed as conditions warrant and experience justifies.[17]

The Pasadena Junior High Schools have as their general purpose the development in youth of the characteristics which we believe they must possess in order to be effective citizens in a democracy. Some of the characteristics which are more easily observed are listed below.

    I. Responsibility and Self-Direction
      A responsible and self-directing student is one who increasingly:
        Plans and carries out his activities
        Knows when and how to seek help
        Does what he agrees to do
        Follows directions
        Works independently
        Takes care of property
    II. Relationships with Others
      A student who has good relationships with others increasingly:
        Works and plays well with others
        Respects the rights of others
        Leads or follows as needed
        Serves unselfishly
   III. Skills, Understandings, and Appreciations
      A student who shows skills, understandings, and appreciations is one who increasingly:
        Acquires a fund of reliable information
        Uses this information in new situations
        Expresses himself clearly and correctly
        Develops the skills necessary to accomplish the above

The faculty of Menlo School and Junior College organized their objectives around five areas of human needs: (a) Personal Living, (b) Physical and Mental Health, (c) Social-Civic Life, (d) Home Life, and (e) Vocational Needs.[18] While each of these is analyzed for the behaviors which the faculty hopes to help youth develop, only those relating to social-civic life are presented here.

The type of society in which we are living makes its demands on each individual. There are three aspects of our American society around which we can center our thinking for purposes of building an educational program— a democratic society, a technological society, and a rapidly changing society.

We are living in a *democratic society*, assumed by Menlo to represent the best type of society yet conceived.

We, the Menlo faculty, by working with each student as a partner in the planning, will attempt to create an environment and provide experiences which will help that student to do these things:

1. Develop a genuine respect for the personality of all individuals
2. Develop a high regard for the public interest, the public good. Assume responsibility as an individual and with groups in furthering the accepted goals of our democratic society
3. Solve social problems by intellectual and rational processes, rather than by force or by propaganda methods. This principle is doubly important during the current period of national stress
4. Become identified with an ever-widening social and economic field
5. Understand that the concept and the form of our democratic society are always changing. They are in a continual state of becoming, caused by persistent planning for the present and the future in terms of certain principles that underlie democratic life
6. Recognize that some of these principles center around individual human rights—freedom of speech, of worship, of press, of assemblage. These have been lost in other countries during the past few years and it will be only by unusual effort on the part of all citizens that they will be preserved in our country
7. Desire for all persons such benefits as a reasonable degree of economic security, adequate health care for self and family, adequate educational opportunities for all children
8. Consider the possibility of devoting a significant portion of his life to serving the public interest, even as did many of the founders of our Republic

We are living in a *technological society*, a society produced by man's increasing understanding of nature and by the invention of machines to use that new knowledge.

We, the Menlo faculty, by working with each student as a partner in the planning, will attempt to create an environment and provide experiences which will help that student to do these things:

1. Understand these major aspects of physical environment:
   a) The physical environment is full of natural energy that can be changed into forms more useful to man
   b) The natural environment is constantly interacting with the man-made environment

c) Forces continually interplay with materials in the physical world
d) Availability and use of natural resources have a profound effect upon the development of society
e) Present scientific and technological achievements (e.g., rapid transportation, electrical communication) are powerful influences for further technological advance

2. Understand some of the important considerations involved in man's adjustment to this technological society:
   a) The large majority of individuals are consumers of technological developments; only a very small percentage are producers of science
   b) All persons need to know how and where to find reliable guidance as consumers in technical areas where they cannot be their own authorities
   c) The materials of the environment present opportunities for scientific research and discovery of new knowledge
   d) Increased use of technological devices has given man more leisure time
   e) Provision should be made for the improvement, installation, distribution, and use of those materials which insure better living conditions and health

3. In the absence of early opportunities for youth to obtain gainful employment, find adequate status-establishing satisfactions in new types of participation in the adult world

We are living today in a *rapidly changing* society, characterized at times by almost catastrophic changes during the lifetime of an individual.

We, the Menlo faculty, by working with each student as a partner in the planning, will attempt to create an environment and provide experiences which will help that student to do these things:

1. Develop the ability to maintain stability of outlook and purpose through changing social and economic conditions
2. Develop the capacity and the will to be creative in connection with social change. It is not enough simply to adjust to changed conditions
3. Develop the power to use generalizations and abstractions in formulating policies for social changes
4. Realize that society is slow in solving the problems created by new technological developments
5. Recognize that society has not evolved adequate standards to guide developments in a rapidly changing society

The teachers of the Gompers Junior High School in Los Angeles defined their objectives in terms of democratic principles: respect for the worth of the individual, respect for freedom and assumption of responsibility, concern for the welfare of the group, faith in intelligence in solving problems.

A. Respect for the Worth of the Individual (Tolerance)
   The good citizen grows in respect for the individual and in tolerance
   when he—
   1. Increases in his ability to evaluate himself and plan a course of
      progressive action on the basis of such evaluation
   2. Develops an increasing sense of social responsibility
   3. Achieves increasingly a sense of his worth as an individual through
      confidence in his abilities and interests
   4. Achieves increasing security and status in both his personal and
      social relationships
   5. Respects himself
      . . .

B. Respect for Freedom and Assumption of Responsibility
   I. The good citizen grows in respect for civil liberties when he—
      1. Recognizes the necessity of majority rule and the value of
         minority opinion
      2. Respects the beliefs of others
      3. Allows others to express opinions different from his own
      4. Realizes that in protecting the rights of others he protects
         his own
      5. Recognizes the need for restraint in time of war
         . . .

   II. The good citizen grows in respect for authority and leadership
       when he—
       1. Feels secure in both personal and social relationships
       2. Sees that regulations are necessary for the common good and
          grows in respect for authority
       3. Recognizes the necessity of majority rule and the value of
          minority opinion
          . . .

   III. The good citizen grows in self-direction when he—
        1. Increases in his ability to evaluate himself and plan a course
           of progressive action on the basis of such action
        2. Feels secure in both personal and social relationships
        3. Has an increasing sense of selfhood and individuality
        4. Achieves increasingly a sense of his worth as an individual
           through confidence in his abilities and interests
        5. Takes increasing pride in workmanship
           . . .

C. Concern for the Welfare of the Group
   I. The good citizen grows in social sensitivity when he—
      1. Grows increasingly in self-direction. (See Self-direction.)
      2. Is punctual
      3. Grows increasingly in receptiveness to change
      4. Recognizes increasingly the worth of the individual
      5. Feels an increasing kinship with others
         . . .

II. The good citizen grows in coöperation when he—
1. Grows increasingly in receptiveness to change
2. Is willing to rely upon parliamentary procedures in group discussion
3. Accepts and practices the standards of social conduct existing in the culture
4. Exercises increasing self-control
. . .

III. The good citizen grows in healthful living when he—
1. Keeps his body and clothes clean
2. Chooses nourishing foods sufficient for growth
3. Maintains good posture
4. Seeks medical attention
5. Maintains good bodily elimination
. . .

D. Faith in Intelligence in Solving Problems
I. The good citizen grows in critical-mindedness when he—
1. Employs clear thinking in all his learning experiences
a) Recognizes a problem
b) Analyzes
c) Does research
d) Organizes and interprets
e) Draws conclusions
f) Checks conclusions
g) Uses conclusions
2. Maintains increasing equilibrium through success and failure
3. Grows increasingly in good taste and the appreciation of the aesthetic values of life (including movies, radio, etc.)
4. Listens attentively and critically
5. Uses the library and all of its aids effectively and efficiently
6. Uses mathematical skills with ease and accuracy
. . .

II. The good citizen grows in expression when he—
1. Uses intelligence in forming opinions
2. Is willing to rely on parliamentary procedure in group discussion
3. Reads with speed, accuracy, and comprehension
4. Speaks with courtesy, ease, clarity, and intelligence
5. Writes legibly and neatly
. . .

E. Understanding the Meaning of Democracy
The good citizen grows in understanding the meaning of democracy when he—
1. Grows in receptiveness to change
2. Increases in knowledge in ways of living of other people
3. Grows in understanding of the geography and resources of the

community, region, and nation and their relation to the culture
4. Increases his information of the nature and ideals of our govern-
ment and of the specific functions of citizenship

2. *Social-studies objectives.*—The social-studies teachers from the
Seattle Public Schools who participated in the Stanford Social Educa-
tion Investigation stated the following as the behaviors on which they
as a group would concentrate.

A. Understandings
   1. To be familiar with our American culture
   2. To recognize the importance of the wise utilization of our human
      and non-human resources
   3. To have a knowledge of our American political system
   4. To be acquainted with the form and functioning of our American
      government
   5. To be familiar with the basic principles of our economic system
   6. To have a knowledge of the evolutionary character of human insti-
      tutions
   7. To understand the nature of public opinion and propaganda
   8. To appreciate the rôle of the arts in American life
   9. To recognize his own attitudes and interests
   10. To have a clear concept of the nature of democracy

B. Skills and Abilities
   1. To arrive at logical conclusions by the scientific method
   2. To participate in group discussions—panel, round table, forum, and
      informal discussions
   3. To present data effectively in written and oral form
   4. To work with others cooperatively in planning work and in gather-
      ing and using data
   5. To prepare and present data by means of charts, maps, tables, slides,
      graphs, movies, friezes, cartoons, and murals
   6. To interpret and evaluate data presented in various ways: record-
      ings, radio speeches, graphs, pictorial materials, movies, written
      material, and maps
   7. To summarize a discussion or presentation, either oral or written
   8. To collect data
      a) By means of interview
      b) By use of library facilities: *Who's Who, Readers' Guide,* card
         catalog, encyclopedias, dictionary and *World Almanac*
      c) By using all parts of a book effectively—index, bibliography,
         illustrations, footnotes, table of contents, and appendixes
      d) By reading for pleasure and information, skimming, and studying
      e) By field trips or excursions
      f) By using radio, movies, speeches, lectures, and pictorial materials
      g) From demonstrations

9. To distinguish relevant and irrelevant materials, reliable and biased sources, sufficiency of evidence
10. To concentrate on the job at hand
11. To listen attentively and courteously
12. To work independently
13. To follow directions intelligently
14. To be resourceful

C. Values (Attitudes, appreciations, social sensitivity and interests)
1. To appreciate the interdependent nature of contemporary society
2. To be tolerant
3. To appreciate the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy
4. To appreciate the unique character and worth of cultures other than our own
5. To appreciate the worth of the individual as a member of society
6. To be cooperative
7. To be sensitive to current social problems
8. To develop self-acceptance
9. To develop self-reliance and self-respect
10. To appreciate the rôle of the arts in American life

3. *Class objectives.*—The objectives of a particular class usually grow out of the school objectives and the department objectives. Sometimes they restate those of the school on which the class wishes to place particular emphasis; usually they add to or amplify those stated by the faculty. The following were the anticipated outcomes drawn up by a teacher[10] during his preplanning for a class in United States history and government. The final objectives drawn up by the class would undoubtedly differ from these which the teacher anticipated. However, an experienced teacher who understands the needs of adolescents and attempts to guide his teaching in terms of those needs can usually anticipate fairly accurately the goals which students will want to achieve.

1. Acquire an extensive body of information and an understanding of our American heritage. One with this information has the following appreciations and knowledge:
   a) Understands the organization and functioning of our national, state, and local governments and their powers and limitations under the constitution
   b) Understands the democratic processes of majority rule, minority opposition, and adaptive working compromise
   c) Is acquainted with the successive democratic movements in our national history and the contribution of each to our democracy
   d) Possesses an understanding of the major social currents in America

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e) Possesses a knowledge and appreciation of American civil liberties and their implications

f) Understands the threat of totalitarianism to democracy

2. Develop desirable social attitudes. A person with desirable social attitudes has the following attributes:

a) Possesses social sensitivity

b) Places social values above personal interest

c) Is concerned about the social, political, and economic problems of the present

d) Has a profound allegiance to the principle of human equality, brotherhood, and the dignity and worth of each individual

e) Shows loyalty to the American ideals and to the finer elements in the American tradition by assuming his responsibility as a good citizen for the proper functioning of our government

f) Is cooperative

g) Is tolerant of the opinions and beliefs of others

h) Can be depended upon to carry out his responsibilities

i) Values the place and worth of all peoples in our American society

3. Develop the ability to think critically. A person who has this ability has the following intellectual characteristics:

a) Defines problems carefully

b) Interprets accurately data concerning political, economic, and social life

c) Uses logical arguments in discussions and writings about American life

d) Draws sound generalizations

e) Applies accepted principles to new situations

f) Detects and analyzes the common forms of propaganda

g) Discusses intelligently the major problems growing out of our industrial and economic development

h) Views social problems in the light of their historical genesis and appraises consequences of proposed solutions in terms of such insight

4. Develop good work habits and study skills. One who has good work habits and study skills takes pleasure and profit in the following activities:

a) Reads books, newspapers, and magazines intelligently

b) Uses library facilities easily and constructively

c) Presents his data in an interesting and challenging manner

d) Possesses and uses an adequate vocabulary

e) Habitually follows regularly reported news

f) Uses varied and reliable sources of information

5. Develop a broad pattern of interests in and appreciation for the rich heritage of our culture. A person with such a pattern of interests can undertake the following activities:

a) Studies, discusses, and participates in the solutions of current social, political, and economic problems

b) Enjoys formal and informal associations with others; engages in varied social, political, and cultural activities

c) Appreciates American art, music, and literature and their contribution to our national development

d) Possesses a genuine appreciation of American democracy and culture and a justifiable pride in our nation's accomplishments and ideals

4. *Unit objectives.*—The objectives stated in behavioral terms for a resource unit, "Participating in and Improving Home Life," were anticipated as the outcomes of a study of the unit by seventh-graders.[20]

A. Understandings: A student increasingly understands
   1. The place of home in a democratic society
   2. The responsibility of each member of the family toward winning the war
   3. That the home provider's income places limitations upon family's spending
   4. The necessity of keeping a budget and practicing thrift
   5. The necessity for rules and regulations in the home
   6. The worth of a well cared for home to family members and society
   7. The value and enjoyment of wholesome leisure time activities
   8. The value and importance of good health

B. Attitudes: A student increasingly
   1. Respects his parents and other members of the family
   2. Shows tolerance and cheerfulness in the home
   3. Practices high standards of conduct and appreciates those practiced by all members of his family
   4. Assumes responsibility for his share of the family duties
   5. Appreciates the beautiful as expressed in his home

C. Abilities and Skills: Skillfully each student
   1. Plans and prepares for the duties of home life
   2. Makes the best use of leisure time
   3. Makes adjustments as home influences change.
   4. Participates in collecting scrap metal, rubber, tin cans, etc
   5. Budgets his money and buys war stamps and bonds in an effort to win the war
   6. Improves home life in the community

5. *Individual objectives.*—In addition to group objectives, students usually have needs, interests, or goals which demand individual attention and differ from the objectives set up for the group. Opportunity should be given for students to work on these objectives and to appraise regularly the progress which they are making in their individual

goals, as well as in those which the group has formulated. Individual objectives stated by a student in a tenth-grade English class correlated with a world history class included the following:[21]

1. Be a better speller
2. Write more interesting compositions
3. Have assignments in on time
4. Read more widely
5. Have more self-confidence
6. Be reliable
7. Increase my vocabulary
8. Learn to concentrate
9. Be more courteous
10. Get more out of what I read

Use of Generalizations

It is often helpful to teachers in preplanning a unit of work to state the generalizations which they hope students will gain from a study of the unit. These are useful to teachers in selecting the subject-matter content to be included in the unit. They are thus "anticipated outcomes," but they differ from the other objectives in that they are not stated in behavioral terms and students cannot participate in formulating them at the beginning of their study. Sound generalizations are reached only after one has studied a problem and has made a thorough examination of all relevant and pertinent information. Neither can teacher-made generalizations be given to students before they have studied a problem, for that would be contrary to all sound learning principles. Such a practice would spoil the motivation necessary for effective learning; ruin the sense of adventure which students get from discovering something for themselves; and destroy the incentive to gather, examine, organize, and evaluate data in order to reach conclusions which they can accept and put into action. The statement of generalizations by teachers in the preplanning of a resource unit is valuable only if it is remembered that these generalizations are merely suggestive and anticipated and if they are used as the basis for gathering materials and selecting content.

To be helpful to teachers in selecting subject matter, however, generalizations need to be more than mere statements of fact or concepts. Useful generalizations are usually of four kinds. They may (a) be descriptive in that they summarize a number of facts or situations; (b) show the cause-and-effect relationship revealed through the examination of many situations; (c) state principles which, if understood and accepted, serve as guides for future action; and (d) be conclusions or courses of action adopted on the basis of the reliable and pertinent data examined.

The fact that the teacher has certain generalizations in mind at the beginning of a unit does not mean that he expects all his students to arrive at these generalizations as a result of their study. When the

issue is controversial, one can hardly expect all students to arrive at the same conclusions; nor would it be in keeping with the democratic philosophy for the teacher to expect students to accept his point of view without question. Such acceptance would be a denial not only of democratic procedure in the classroom but also of the process of reflective thinking, which encourages the student to reach his own decisions on the basis of all the reliable and pertinent evidence which is available.

Most lists of generalizations are thus merely suggestive and do not attempt to include all the generalizations which might be drawn from a unit of study. They serve the purpose, as do other objectives, of helping the teacher select and plan content materials in a more purposeful manner. The following are a few of the generalizations from the resource unit, "Democratic Government," developed for a course in world civilization.[22]

1. The form of government in any society is an expression of the basic point of view or the prevailing philosophy of that society; in democracy, government is not only of, for, and by the people, but it is the people themselves.

2. Government is a social tool by means of which a society attempts to provide for its common needs; in an autocratic society the needs are determined by a small ruling group at the top; and in a democratic society the needs are determined by a more general consensus of the total group.

3. Although little individual responsibility is needed in an autocratic society or government, the success of a government in a democratic society depends on the willingness and ability of the individual to accept duties and responsibility.

4. Democratic government tends to collapse whenever the individual citizens fail to use it effectively for the meeting of their personal and social needs.

5. For a democratic government to succeed it is necessary that all aspects of the society, such as the home, school, and church, be carried on in the democratic faith.

6. The success of a democracy depends on the ability of citizens to carry on reflective thinking on a group basis in terms of defining problems, gathering and interpreting data, and drawing conclusions.

7. If there is to be effective training for democratic leadership in government, it must come through the schools.

8. Although the rule of the majority is the deciding factor in policy in a democratic government, the minority is given full right to seek to convert the majority to its point of view.

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Use of Behavioral Objectives

No social-education program can be purposefully directed toward desirable social goals until its objectives have been clearly defined in operational terms so that they are understood by the teachers and students who are to use them. That they will be more functional when they are formulated coöperatively by teachers and students seems evident.

Objectives, however, serve no purpose unless they are translated into actual classroom practice and unless situations are provided in which student behavior as defined in the objectives can be developed and observed. When teachers and students take the objectives seriously, it may mean a reorganization of the school's program, a change in subject-matter content, new procedures and techniques of instruction, a new emphasis in the evaluation program, and new ways of reporting progress to parents. As teaching groups have defined school objectives in behavioral terms, some of the questions which have immediately been raised are: How can we gather evidence of student growth in these behaviors? Should these behaviors be considered in grades and reports to parents? What changes will we have to make in the classroom if we are to help students develop these behaviors? What kinds of situations must we provide to facilitate growth? Can we gather reliable evidence on student growth in behaviors other than skills and knowledge? All of these and many more become important problems when teachers attempt to define what it is they are trying to do in the schools and what behaviors are essential if democracy is to be preserved.

As teachers work together in seeking the answers to these questions, the objectives become active factors in in-service education because they help to clarify the school's philosophy, to establish new values and new viewpoints, to bring about better coöperation among teachers and greater appreciation of the service and contributions of others on the staff. Behavioral objectives thus become a motivating factor not only for student learning but for faculty action in reappraising curriculum offerings, student government, classroom organization and techniques, social and personal relationships within the school, the evaluation program, reports of progress to parents and students, guidance programs, and even administrative procedures and arrangements. How behavioral objectives determine and direct the school's program in each of these aspects of the school life will be the subject of the chapters which follow.

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CONTENT OF INSTRUCTION FOR SOCIAL COMPETENCE

THE ORGANIZATION of the curriculum to meet the needs of adolescents and develop in them the behaviors required of effective democratic citizens demands careful planning and study on the part of teachers, administrators, and curriculum experts. Too frequently curriculums have been allowed to develop without any overall plan or long-time goals in view. Teachers with special interests, talents, or hobbies have urged that they be permitted to organize new courses which would give vent to their enthusiasms; groups in the community have demanded new courses which would stress their particular interests; curriculum reformers and popular demands for courses to meet national and community emergencies have accounted for the addition of still other courses. Once added, a course or subject is likely to remain long after the demand for it has passed. Interests once entrenched are difficult to uproot. The multiplicity of the subjects offered, the overlapping of courses, the rivalry which often results between departments and teachers for student enrollment to prove the popularity of their courses —all are evidence of the lack of a clear educational philosophy on the part of many schools.

How much flexibility in the curriculum design is desirable and how rigidly the scope and sequence of departments, subjects, and units should be defined is still a moot question. Some teachers who believe curriculums should be based on the needs and interests of boys and girls feel that the curriculum cannot be predetermined. These teachers would plan all educational experiences coöperatively with their students. Other teachers who believe just as confidently that the school's program should be determined by the needs and interests of youth are convinced that experienced teachers with an understanding of young people and their needs should be able, with a fair degree of accuracy, to predict what the problems and interests of a given group of boys and girls growing up in a specific community will be. They feel more secure when the curriculum is defined in broad terms and themes which give them guide lines but which leave them free within those guide

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lines to plan with students the units which will best meet their needs and problems.

The refusal of recent national committees to recommend a definite program of studies which all secondary schools should follow and the tendency of more local school systems to develop their own programs of study have caused school staffs to give considerable thought to the amount of flexibility which is desirable in a curriculum and the bases on which a sound program of education can be built. Naturally, the task of determining the curriculum pattern is one which demands the coöperative effort of the entire teaching staff. Each teacher needs to understand the total pattern and to have a part in formulating it, if what goes on in his particular classroom, laboratory, or studio is to fit into the overall or master plan. This does not mean that the pattern has to be a rigid one with details worked out in advance. Rather it means that guide lines should be laid down and points of emphasis and themes determined which will direct the on-going process of education toward the desired goals. The rigidity with which these guide lines are to be determined and followed by all teachers is the crux of the problem, especially for schools which attempt to change over from a formal, departmentalized curriculum to one built on the needs and interests of adolescents. An analysis of the bases used by different schools for organizing educational experiences and the methods employed in determining scope and sequence should be helpful both to pre-service social-studies teachers and to experienced teachers who are actually engaged in curriculum revision.

Scope

Meaning

Scope defines the breadth of the curriculum. It has been referred to as the "what" of the curriculum in contrast with sequence, which is the "when." The scope states what is to be emphasized at all grade levels. In a curriculum based on needs, the scope would differ little, if any, from the list of needs which the school considered important. Since basic needs differ little from year to year, the scope of the curriculum in most cases remains constant throughout all grade levels. It thus defines the curriculum vertically by pointing out the needs which must be met at every grade level, the problems which are constantly recurring in the lives of youth, or the areas which should be stressed.

The relation of scope to sequence and objectives may be depicted graphically as shown on the opposite page.

Determination of Scope

Scope has been determined in a number of ways, some of which are

Sequence

VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII

Scope   Objectives

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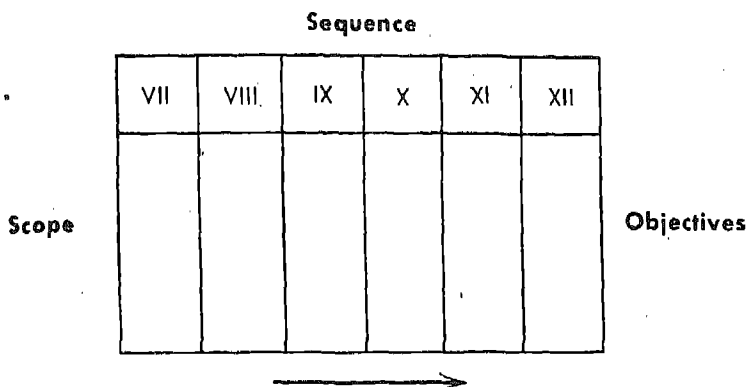
the result of careful consideration by faculty groups and show an understanding of the needs of youth and of the society and culture in which they live. Others give evidence of little thought and are entirely unrelated to the needs and problems of adolescents. Some schools apparently never look at the total curriculum pattern but see it only by courses or by departments.

Textbooks.—The traditional way to define the scope of any course is by the selection of a textbook which is to be followed page by page throughout the year. Thus, most courses in world history which use the textbook to define the scope start with primitive man and follow the entire course of man's progress from savagery to the present time. Problems courses so defined include the units covered in the textbook in the order in which the chapters are presented.

This method has been popular because it is simple and convenient and relieves the teacher of planning and organizing material. Administrators and supervisors like it because it is easy to divide the work and to know what material each child has "covered" during a term, a semester, or a year. Both teachers and administrators have rationalized the use of the textbook in defining the scope of the curriculum by saying that textbook writers know more about the logical organization of materials than a classroom teacher. Unfortunately, what appears to be a logical organization to an adult may have little meaning to a child. The slavish following of textbooks puts a premium upon memorization at the expense of other behaviors considered important by social-studies teachers.

Subject-matter areas.—Whereas a textbook often determines the scope of a given course, subject-matter areas are frequently the only definition given to the scope of the total curriculum. Thus the school's program is said to be composed of English, foreign language, social studies, mathematics, physical education, art, industrial arts, home

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economics, music, commerce, and science. The breadth of each of these subject fields may in turn be defined in the course of study. For example, the social-studies program may include history, civics, geography, sociology, and economics. Or the material drawn from the various social sciences may be fused and organized in some logical manner. The program outlined for each grade level then constitutes the scope of the social studies for that grade level. In many schools each year's program is worked out in detail. Some provide workbooks which are placed in the hands of the students; others give the teachers a printed or mimeographed course of study including detailed outlines to be followed, questions to be asked, and activities to be used. While these courses of study do not always follow one basic text, they are often as restricting as a single text to the imaginative and creative teacher who wishes to plan with his students the educational experiences they will have. And while such courses have the advantage of using more than one textbook and of utilizing the contributions and experiences of classroom teachers working on curriculum committees, they have most of the defects of textbook courses in that they require teachers to follow a prescribed and fixed course from which they are not supposed to deviate. In fact, some city school systems expect all teachers giving a particular course to arrive at certain places in the outline at a certain time, to give city-wide tests on a set day, and to proceed in step throughout the school year.

Purposes or outcomes.—As schools have worked on curriculum revision, some have attempted to define scope in terms of the purposes or outcomes expected. The first impetus to this method was given by Herbert Spencer as long ago as 1859 when he published his famous essay, "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth?" In it he advocated that *the schools should determine the subject matter which goes into the* curriculum on the basis of its contribution to the "kinds of activities which constitute human life." These he believed were:

1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation;
2. Those activities which, by securing the necessities of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation;
3. Those activities which have for their end the rearing and discipline of offspring;
4. Those activities which are involved in the maintenance of proper social and political relations;
5. Those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings.[1]

Almost all statements of purposes or outcomes since then have stemmed from *Spencer's* analysis. Usually, when this method is used to

define scope, the general purposes of the school are broken down into the outcomes expected in each subject and these in turn are further analyzed into those expected at each grade level. The general purposes thus define the scope of the total curriculum for all grade levels, while course objectives define those for a particular course. Activities must be provided at each grade level and in each subject which will aid boys and girls in developing, for example: "(1) health, (2) command of fundamental processes, (3) worthy home-membership, (4) vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, (7) ethical character."[2] These "Seven Cardinal Principles" were formulated by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association in 1918. Since 1918, numerous other committees and commissions have suggested statements of aims, some of which have been used to define scope. The classification of objectives proposed by the Educational Policies Commission[3] is probably a better classification of needs than of objectives. If accepted by a school system as a definition of the scope, they would produce a more functional organization of the curriculum than is now in use in most secondary schools. Only one of the schools participating in the Stanford Social Education Investigation elected this method for defining the scope of its curriculum. The staff of the Sequoia Union High School state their scope in terms of the outcomes expected in: (1) health, (2) vocations, (3) recreation and social relationships, and (4) citizenship.

The use of purposes or outcomes to define scope seems sound and logical, for all educational experiences should be directed toward the achievement of educational goals. However, as Caswell and Campbell point out, the disadvantage of this method lies in the process of analyzing general goals into specific objectives around which instruction may be organized, and of assigning these to subject-matter areas or grade levels. The process becomes either too involved and complicated and the list of objectives too long and unwieldy or, as often happens, subject-matter areas become identified with one objective to the exclusion of all others. This happened with the "Seven Cardinal Principles." Physical education was concerned only with health; civics, with citizenship; and home economics, with family life. Furthermore, this method is based on the assumption that learning can be done piecemeal, that objectives can be accomplished one at a time and bit by bit.[4] In reality, as was pointed out in a previous chapter, all learning is interrelated: a child's attitudes and skills are changing at the same time that he is acquiring understanding; his physical and emotional development as well as his intellectual progress is the concern of all teachers.

Themes.—Some schools have stated their scope in terms of major themes around which the educational activities at each grade level are organized. At Fort Worth, Texas, for example, the social-studies program reported in 1936 is organized around five major themes and each of the units into which the program is organized contributes to an understanding of one of the themes. "They serve as summarizing strands around which the data or materials of the social studies can be woven. The data explain the themes, and the themes give meaning to the data." The themes used are:

1. The Interdependence Theme
2. Increasing Control over Nature Theme
3. The Adaptation Theme
4. The Population Theme
5. The Democracy Theme[5]

Each theme is considered inclusive in that there are many aspects and ramifications of each to be considered. Furthermore, the relationship between the various themes is not overlooked in explaining social structure and social change.

The use of themes as a center for organizing curriculum experiences was suggested by Billings as a convenient technique for focusing the social studies upon important generalizations useful to adults in interpreting contemporary problems.[6] When used to define scope, aspects of the theme which are to be stressed at each grade level are usually determined in advance and stated in the course of study. They in turn become the major point of reference in selecting content and activities.

Although the use of themes as a definition of scope should mean that the curriculum at each grade level includes some aspect of each theme, an examination of courses of study which use this method does not support this assumption. The units proposed in the Fort Worth program for the kindergarten and Grade I stress only the "Interdependence Theme"; Grade II, only "Interdependence" and "Control over Nature." The South Dakota State Program in the Social Studies, also built upon themes, stresses the "Democracy Theme" only in Grades V, VI, and VII. The overemphasis on particular themes to the exclusion of others is questionable; however, when chosen wisely and used at each grade level, themes possess much merit as a basis for curriculum organization.

Areas of human relationships.—The Commission on Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association identified four broad areas of human relationships into which fall most of the activities, problems, and needs of adolescents growing up in contemporary American culture. The commission called these:

1. Immediate social relationships
2. Wider social relationships
3. Economic relationships
4. Personal living[7]

They were selected after a careful study of the activities, needs, and

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problems of youth had been carried on by the *Committee on the Study of Adolescents* for the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum. They therefore not only are a convenient way for classifying needs but also have furnished a useful method for organizing educational expe-riences for meeting needs. Hence, more and more schools, in attempt-ing to provide a curriculum which helps youth to solve their problems and obtain their goals, are finding these areas of human relationships satisfactory for defining the scope of the curriculum. Used as a defini-tion of scope, they obligate the school to provide experiences at each grade level which will help boys and girls establish desirable relation-ships in each of three areas and at the same time make optimum adjust-ment in their personal living.

Since the areas of human relationships cut across conventional sub-ject-matter boundaries, they can be used to define the scope of general education as well as that of the social studies. Thus, West High School in Denver and the Fortuna Union High School define the scope of their general-education curriculums in terms of these areas of human relationships, while the Lincoln and Franklin High Schools in Seattle use them only to define the scope of the social-studies curriculum.

Basic social processes.—The work of Marshall in calling attention to the social processes used by all groups large and small, past and present, has influenced curriculum organization in some schools. Since these social processes are basic in all group living, they provide convenient foci for organizing both social-studies and general-education programs. These processes as identified by Marshall are:

1. The process of developing culture
2. The process of developing and utilizing standards
3. The process of forming, maintaining, and governing groups
4. The process of learning to control nature
5. The process of adjustment of population
6. The process of economic organization
7. The process of continuing and conserving the race
8. The process of molding personality[8]

The social-studies program at Baltimore, Maryland, illustrates the use of this method in defining scope. The pattern for each year's work is based on the development of an understanding of how these processes function in human living.[9]

Basic social functions.—Another procedure somewhat similar to that of the basic social processes is to organize all educational experiences around the types of activities which occupy most individuals through-out their lifetime. These activities, usually referred to as "basic social functions," are persistent and common among all organized groups, at

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all times and in all places. Since the problems and interests of individuals and groups tend to cluster around these social functions, they provide a convenient way for organizing curriculum experiences so that they take on meaning and importance for boys and girls.

One of the earliest courses of study to use basic social functions to determine the breadth of the program was that constructed by the state of Virginia. Since then, numerous states, counties, and cities have used basic social functions in defining scope. For example, the functions selected in the Santa Barbara County and City curriculum development programs were:

1. Developing and conserving human resources
2. Developing, conserving, and intelligently utilizing nonhuman resources
3. Producing, distributing, and consuming goods and services
4. Communicating
5. Transporting
6. Recreating and playing
7. Expressing and satisfying spiritual and aesthetic needs
8. Organizing and governing
9. Providing education[10]

For the Santa Barbara county schools, these functions are used to define the scope of the core curriculum on the assumption that the work in all subjects should help the child to grow in his understanding of how groups have performed these functions in the past and of the problems existing in contemporary life in carrying them out.

Although inconsistencies often exist in lists of social functions and overlappings frequently occur between one so-called function and another, this method is one of the most meaningful methods for defining scope and assuring curriculum-builders that the curriculum will include all important aspects of the culture. Several of the schools in the Investigation found this procedure a satisfactory method of organizing adolescent needs for curriculum purposes. The Eugene Public Schools and the Salt Lake City Schools used it for defining the scope of the social-studies program; Pasadena, Baker Junior High School in Denver, and David Starr Jordan High School in Long Beach used it to select content, focus emphasis, and organize activities for the general-education curriculum.

Use of Scope

Defining the scope of the curriculum in any of the ways discussed above does not mean that at each grade level there must be one unit for each function, relationship, process, or theme. Rather, it means that the learning experiences for each year should be so planned that

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the child will have an opportunity to meet his needs in each of these areas at the level of his maturity. For example, some problems related to family life in the area of immediate personal-social relations will probably arise at each grade level. Seventh-grade children, most of whom are pre-adolescent, have such problems as: How can I get along with my brothers and sisters? What responsibilities do I have at home? How can I get money for the things I want and need? While tenth-graders are still concerned with these problems, the things for which they want money have changed and the consumer-economics aspect of the problem is more important than the skills involved in budgeting. As young adolescents attempting to establish adult status and maintain their own individuality, tenth-graders have needs focusing on such problems as: How can I get along better with my parents? How can I get the family car? Problems of twelfth-grade students, who are approaching the threshold of adulthood, turn more to courtship and marriage and establishing homes of their own. All these problems deal with relationships in the family, yet all are different. Duplications need not occur if teachers, in selecting problems and areas for study, are sensitive to the needs of adolescents.

The learning experiences may also be organized so that some of the needs in several areas are met within one unit. The unit "How can I select goods and services more intelligently?" would certainly be concerned with adolescent economic needs. But spending money wisely also makes for better immediate personal-social relations in the family, with one's peers, and in the community. The problem of the consumer is also a broad social problem with many political and social implications. Thus the problem "How can I select goods and services more intelligently?" meets some of the needs of youth in at least three of the areas suggested by the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum as areas of significant relationships. It might also meet needs in the fourth area, "personal living," for a skillful teacher would help the student see that the wise expenditure of money would include consideration of the ethical and aesthetic values in life. Defining only the scope of the curriculum leaves much leeway for pupil-teacher planning of the problems to be studied, the breadth of the problems, and the activities to be used in studying the problem.

Criteria for Determining Scope

In judging the relative usefulness of the different ways of defining scope, it is helpful to appraise them in the light of the following criteria:

1. *Comprehensiveness.*—Does the method considered provide for a comprehensive and broad program of study such as will insure due

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consideration to the needs and problems of children at all grade levels, extend their horizons, and increase their insights? Any scheme for selecting content, organizing activities, and focusing emphasis must be comprehensive enough to include the needs which are common to most boys and girls growing to adulthood in contemporary American culture and the problems which they encounter in adjusting to changing conditions and status. The method which best meets this criterion should require a teacher or a staff to examine curriculum offerings and classroom activities to see that they include adequate experiences and content related to all the major areas of human activities.

2. *Balance.*—Does the method proposed give proper emphasis to all phases of social living or does it emphasize some at the expense of others? Proper balance in the social-studies curriculum, for example, not only implies attention to the economic, social, cultural, and scientific areas of a culture, as well as to its political aspects, but also means that contemporary culture is not emphasized to such an extent that an understanding of the genesis of current problems is not obtained or that present-day life is not seen in its proper historical setting. On the other hand, balance in the curriculum would not permit undue emphasis on ancient and medieval cultures, thus giving students little or no opportunity to understand the problems of their own age. Likewise, proper balance would prevent an overemphasis on verbal and book learning in certain grades or by some students, or on manipulative and doing activities in other grades or by other students. An adequate scope should provide opportunities for young people to have experiences of all kinds which would continually require the use of the library, the shops, the studios, laboratories, playground, and classroom. Balance thus means that more important experiences and content are given greater emphasis and those of lesser importance are given less emphasis.

3. *Continuity.*—Does the proposed scope provide for a continuity of learning experiences so that students grow continuously in knowledge, competence, and a sense of values? Does the scope provide opportunities for them to meet again and again important social and economic concepts and generalizations so that, "through progressive study and reflection," these become a part of their mental equipment, to be interpreted and applied in their daily living?[11] Learning is developmental; social competence results from continuous opportunity to apply and use the tools of democracy; knowledge and insight, likewise, are the product of repeated study of social processes and functions in situations increasingly difficult and complex. Attitudes, too, are often the result of the accumulation of one's experiences and background. In

fact, mental hygienists assert that this is the best way for attitudes to develop, for it permits an individual to organize his dispositions, inclinations, feelings, and opinions into a value pattern which gives constancy to his behavior.[12] Thus adolescents need opportunity again and again to meet situations which help them to develop attitudes considered necessary and desirable for mature democratic citizens—attitudes of coöperation, tolerance, self-discipline, critical-mindedness, social sensitivity, optimism, responsibility, self-respect, and self-reliance.

4. *Close relationship to everyday living.*—Does the proposed scope provide many opportunities for the student to see the relationship between what he is studying in school and his everyday life? Does it make use of community resources and the experiences which the child has outside the classroom? Does it focus on youth needs and problems? A *scope which meets this criterion would be functional in that at each* grade level the educational experiences would be related closely to the needs and problems which the students encounter or expect to encounter in their daily life. The scope would thus be flexible enough to insure attention to individual needs as well as to those of different groups at different levels of maturity.

5. *Functional relationship between the different subject areas.*—Is the proposed scope one which is broad enough to include all or most of the subject areas traditionally included in the secondary curriculum? Does it make possible a coöperative approach to the needs and problems of youth? Or is the scope one which plays up one subject area at the expense of others, thus tending to enhance one department and make handmaidens of the rest? A scope which satisfies this criterion should be broad enough to include all subject areas and should be a basis for providing a working relationship between various subject-matter fields so that each contributes to the student's growth and development in major areas of social living. Conversely, a wisely defined scope might provide criteria for screening out subject areas or courses which have no place in the general-education curriculum. If the course or even the subject field does not contribute to students' growth in the areas, functions, processes, themes, or purposes selected for the scope, then the course or subject field has failed to justify its inclusion in general education, or the definition of scope has been too limited.

The use of such a criterion does not necessarily mean that subject areas need to be retained in their traditional form. In fact, as a functional relationship is established some of the customary course or subject boundaries may tend to disappear. Core or common-learnings courses which cut across several subject-matter boundaries may take their place. A satisfactory way for defining scope should however pro-

vide for a close working relationship among different subject areas so that all teachers and all departments are working on common objectives, are conscious of the common needs and problems of youth in all major aspects of life, and see ways by which their courses can be revised to help youth solve their problems successfully. Students also should be aware of this relationship. What is learned in one class should be utilized in others, and the interrelatedness of all learning should be constantly apparent to even the least alert.

The teachers in the Stanford Social Education Investigation concluded at the end of their four years of study that "areas of human relationship," "social processes," and "social functions" meet these criteria most successfully and are, therefore, useful categories for defining scope. Likewise, they concluded that textbooks, subject-matter areas, themes, and purposes meet the criteria less well and are hence less valuable as determiners of the scope of the curriculum.

Sequence

Meaning

Sequence refers to what shall be emphasized at each grade level. This has proved one of the most vexing of all curriculum problems. Theoretically, sequence should be based upon progressive stages of student development—upon the physical, mental, and social maturity of youth. But, whereas there are ample studies of the needs, activities, and problems of individuals and groups on which to base the scope of the curriculum, there are few reliable studies of maturation on which to determine the grade placement of subject matter.

The recent growth and development studies carried on by the California Institute of Child Welfare, the Committee on Adolescents of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, and other groups have greatly increased knowledge of the interests and concerns of adolescents and pre-adolescents at various stages of their development and of the problems the schools face in trying to develop a program to meet these maturing interests. The longitudinal studies carried on by the California Institute of Child Welfare, for example, have shown the fallacy of trying to measure mental, physical, social, or emotional maturity in terms of chronological age and the difficulties resulting from classifying boys and girls of the same age for educational purposes as "seventh-graders," "tenth-graders," or "twelfth-graders." The variation between sexes in the rate of maturation had long been recognized, but less emphasis had previously been placed upon the extreme variation in maturity found within the same sex at any grade level in the secondary school. Girls develop on the average one and

one-half to two years ahead of boys. This means, Stoltz says, that "in the seventh or eighth grade you may find two-thirds of the girls in the puberal cycle while two-thirds of the boys have not yet started upon it."[13] The variation within the same sex may be just as great. During puberty, boys of the same chronological age may be as much as five years apart in their physiological development. To speak of all fifteen-year-olds as showing certain characteristics is thus as fallacious as to speak of the interests of all tenth-graders. They are sure to be alike only in the number of years they have lived.[14]

In any one class, theoretically, it would be possible to find a girl and a boy who were as far as five years apart in physiological development. Actually, even casual inspection in the gym or on the playground shows during junior and early senior high school boys and girls who vary from little boys and girls to mature women and men.[15]

To plan a sequence which takes into consideration this wide variation in physical development, with its accompanying dissimilarity in social and emotional development, is difficult; and in the absence of reliable evidence on the optimum time to teach certain skills and subject matter, schools have had little to guide them except the reports of national curriculum committees. These have generally based their recommendations on logically organized subject matter.

Determination of Sequence

Schools which have broken away from recommended sequences and

The Pyramid of Culture
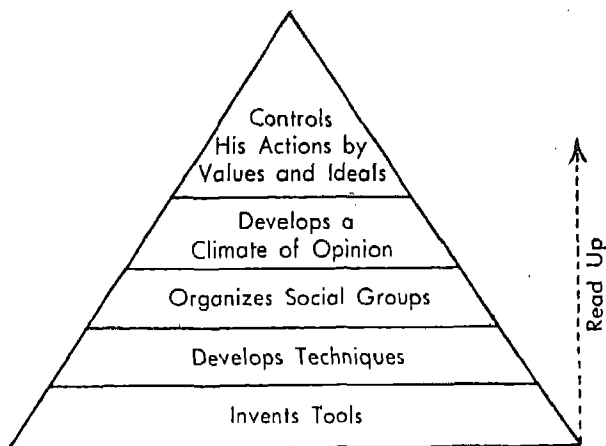
Man Uses His Cultural Heritage in Seeking Ways to Carry Out Basic Social Functions in His Geographic Environment

have established programs of curriculum revision have tended to rely upon certain principles, some of which are better than others. The principles most frequently used for determining sequence are:

1. *Proceed from the simple to the complex.*—The assumption underlying this principle is that learning is developmental and that children should progressively be able to handle more difficult concepts and generalizations as they become older. The school's program is thus arranged so that the work of each grade becomes more difficult. Simple institutions and cultures are studied before more complex ones; concrete, descriptive, and functional situations precede those which are abstract and theoretical in nature. This concept of education as a developmental process and of the individual as a maturing personality is the basis for placing the emphasis in the elementary grades on tools, techniques, and immediate social relations and in the secondary schools on more abstract and objective consideration of social relations and institutions.[16] This concept has been presented schematically, in the diagram on the preceding page, with tools and techniques at the bottom and social controls and values at the top as the more difficult to grasp and understand. The scope of the curriculum for the Eugene Public Schools given in Table 3 illustrates how this principle can be used to determine the sequence of the curriculum.

2. *Proceed from the immediate to the more remote.*—This principle is based upon the belief that pre-adolescents are most interested in their immediate surroundings—the family, their peers, the school, the neighborhood, and the community. Moreover, the study of adolescents reveals that "during earlier adolescence inclinations are characteristically manipulative; interests are short-range; and identifications with wide and impersonal groups are impossible."[17] As boys and girls become older and more mature, however, their horizons expand and they desire to establish themselves as mature individuals in the community and the world. Social, economic, and political problems of the adult world challenge them. Hence, the schools need to provide experiences for older adolescents which will deepen and broaden their understanding of the world beyond their immediate community. The sequence of the social-studies curriculum of the Salt Lake City schools is built upon this principle and proceeds from a study of the problems of the community to those of the region, the nation, and the world. (See Table 4.)

3. *Proceed according to logical analysis of the subject field.*—The logical organization of subject material has been supported both by the formal-discipline concept of education and by the efforts of social scientists to organize the social sciences systematically. The reports

TABLE 3

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE OF THE SOCIAL-STUDIES CURRICULUM, EUGENE, OREGON

SEQUENCE

SCOPE	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV	Grade V	Grade VI
1. Conserving human resources	How to live effectively in the home and school	How to coöperate effectively with community helpers	How tools and techniques are used in supplying basic needs of our community	How present ways of living in our community developed	How the communities of our country have become interdependent	How science and invention contribute to our present-day living
2. Conserving non-human resources						
3. Producing, distributing, consuming goods and services						

SCOPE	Grade VII	Grade VIII	Grade IX	Grade X	Grade XI	Grade XII
4. Expressing and satisfying recreational, aesthetic, and spiritual needs	How natural and human resources of the region affect living conditions	How American culture has developed	How social controls function in community living	The growth of mankind toward the democratic way of life	How American democratic institutions provide maximum freedom and security in an industrialized and interdependent world	How youth may develop status security, personal response, and participation in our society
5. Communicating						
6. Transporting						
7. Governing						
8. Educating						

TABLE 4

Scope and Sequence of the Experimental Curriculum, Salt Lake, Utah

Sequence for Secondary Schools

Scope	Articulating Unit (Grades VII and VIII)	First Year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth Year
	Community Problems *Units*	Regional Problems *Units*	World Civilization *Units*	American History and Civilization *Units*	American Problems* *Suggested Units*
1. Coöperating in social and civic action	1. How can I secure an education in Utah which will prepare me for effective citizenship?	1. Historical background — discovery, exploration, and colonization of America	1. How did government originate and how can government be made more effective in solving our problems today?	1. The Growth of Democracy in America	1. Vocations
2. Conserving and improving *material conditions*	2. How can our resources be used to the best advantage?	2. Topographical study of natural regions of North, Central, and South America	2. How did the great religions of the world originate and how can religions help solve our modern problems?	2. Our National Government and Its Strong Foundations	2. America's Participation in a New World Order
3. Making a living	3. In what ways is it possible to earn an adequate living in the state of Utah?	3. Pacific Southwest region	3. How did nations develop *and how* can nationalism be made more effective in solving some of our problems?	3. Regional Interests in America	3. Propaganda
4. Making a home	4. How can our homes and home life be improved?	4. New England region		4. Epic of the Frontier	4. Labor and Capital
5. Protecting and improving life and health		5. Eastern industrial region		5. Rise of Industrialism in America	5. Conservation
6. Securing an education				6. America and the World	6. Production and Distribution
					7. American Family Life
					8. Health and Safety

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7. Engaging in recreative activities 8. Satisfying aesthetic and religious impulses	5. How can we combat crime and maintain law and order? 6. How are we benefited by our democratic type of government and what can we do to meet our obligations to it? 7. What can be done in our community to improve life and health? 8. What experiences have the people of Salt Lake City had to make them appreciate their religious and aesthetic development, and what challenges must be met to preserve and carry forth the things which they value?	6. Southern region 7. The Great Lakes region 8. Great Plains region 9. Southwest region 10. Pacific Northwest 11. Canada 12. Mexico 13. Central America 14. West Indies	4. How has science developed and how can it aid in solving our problems today?	7. Postwar America 8. Democracy on Trial	9. Education 10. Recreation 11. Religious and Aesthetic Activities in American Life

* An alternate program permits students to take a semester of sociology, economics, or psychology.

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of the Committee of Ten, the Committee of Seven, and the Committee of Five, discussed in Chapter 1, were largely dominated by this principle. In the social studies, logical organization has usually meant history taught according to chronology; for those who believe in logical organization assert that United States history cannot be understood without a knowledge of Old World background and that a study of contemporary problems should not be undertaken without an understanding of their historical settings. In schools where this principle has been used as a basis for the organization of the social studies, geography sometimes precedes the study of history. Thus most social-studies programs organized on this principle consist of a variation of the following: geography, one or two years of European history (frequently called world history), United States history, and community or contemporary problems. Sometimes this cycle is followed in junior high school and repeated in the senior high school.

Those who support the logical organization of subject matter also apply the principle to the organization of each subject. This would mean organizing history chronologically; civics according to the structure of government; and economics in terms of production, consumption, distribution, and exchange.

Sequoia Union High School followed this principle in the organization of its program. According to one plan for its social-living course, early European history (ancient and medieval) is taught in Grade IX, and European history since 1300 is taught in Grade X. American history in Grade XI and senior problems (contemporary social problems) in Grade XII complete its social-studies program.

4. *Proceed according to student interests.*—According to this principle, an attempt is made to uncover the problems and activities which are of particular interest to students at a specified grade level and to use these interests in planning the sequence. This principle is also inherent in programs which proceed from the immediate to the remote, and from concrete experiences to those which are more abstract and theoretical. Younger adolescents are concerned only with their immediate environment and with experiences which touch them directly. Older adolescents seek to broaden their horizon; they are more concerned about social problems, the peoples of different cultures, and efforts to realize broader ideals and values.

Interests and concerns of adolescents are more difficult to identify than fundamental needs. They are often more illusive, more temporary, and more unstable. "An interest," according to Bingham, "is a tendency to become absorbed in an experience and to continue it. . . ."[18] Interests are thus a powerful motivating factor. They are,

.according to Dewey, dynamic, objective, and personal. An individual cannot remain passive about something in which he is interested. He must do something about it. An interest is always personal; "it signifies a direct concern; a recognition of something at stake, something whose outcome is important for the individual."[19] Allport says that "when an interest-system has once been formed it not only creates ·a tensional condition that may be readily aroused, leading to overt. conduct in some way satisfying to the interest, but it also acts as a silent agent for selecting and directing any behavior related to it."[20]

However, the tentative and unstable nature of interests has caused many people to question the wisdom of using them as a basis for determining sequence. After reviewing many of the studies on this subject, Symonds says:

The upshot of this conflicting evidence is that statements by young people of *precise* preferences of either subjects of study or occupations are of little value inasmuch as they are unstable and subject to change. On the other hand, statements in terms of broad categories, whether of subjects of study or occupational groups, represent rather deep and underlying trends and can be depended upon to possess considerable predictive significance.[21]

To use interests as one basis for determining sequence seems a legitimate procedure. Thorndike has pointed out that more work is done when a student is interested; that interests, as satisfying or pleasurable stimuli, are aids to learning.[22] Research studies show that students do better in those subjects in which they are interested, excel in courses related to their vocational choice and in electives rather than in required courses.[23]

Schools which have attempted to identify interests for curriculum purposes have usually used one or more of the following methods: (1) observed and recorded what students do when they have freedom of choice, inferring their interests from this behavior; (2) asked students through questionnaires what they like to do and inferred their interests from their replies; (3) found out through tests those things on which students are best informed and inferred that their interests lie in those fields and areas. By using these techniques, broad general trends or clusters of interests can be identified and the interest patterns of early and late adolescence determined. On the basis of these interest patterns, problems and units may be allocated to certain grade levels.

These techniques were used by the teachers in Pasadena in determining the sequence of their program, by the Eugene Junior High Schools, and by the Baker Junior High School and West Senior High School in Denver in allocating themes and units of work to various grade levels (see Tables 5 and 6).

TABLE 5

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE OF THE GENERAL-EDUCATION CURRICULUM, DENVER, COLORADO

BAKER JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL			WEST HIGH SCHOOL			
Scope	Sequence		Scope	Sequence		
	Grade VII	Grade VIII		Grade IX	Grades X and XI	Grade XII
1. Living in the home 2. Earning a living 3. Using leisure time 4. Acquiring an education 5. Participating in social-civic activities 6. Protecting life, health, and property 7. Developing social, aesthetic, and religious qualities	*Theme: Growth in happy, democratic living at home and at school* *Units* 1. How can I help in the responsibility of the home? 2. How can I grow up to be strong and healthy? 3. How can I get the things I need and want? 4. How can I make the things I have last longer?	*Theme: Growth in happy, effective, democratic living through experiences in the community* *Units* 1. How can I take a more active part in family affairs? 2. How can I help finances in my home? 3. How can we use and conserve the resources of Colorado? 4. How can I help my community?	1. Immediate personal-social relationships 2. Social-civic relationships 3. Economic relationships 4. Personal living	*Emphasis on group relationships in the immediate environment* *Units* 1. Orientation to School 2. School Citizenship and School Organization 3. Value of a High-School Education 4. Vocations 5. Personality—Its Origin, Development, and Improvement	*Emphasis on responsible participation in socially significant activities with its attendant social recognition* GRADE X *Units* 1. History and Government of Colorado and the Region 2. Citizenship — School, City, State, Region, Nation 3. The World of Work a) Present Trends in Occupational Distribution GRADE XI *Units* 1. Conservation of Resources 2. Intercultural Relations 3. Labor and Capital 4. Social Legislation 5. Taxation 6. Postwar Planning and International Peace	*Emphasis on personal-social understanding that will enable the individual to develop a satisfactory plan for living in a democracy* *Units* 1. A Plan for Living 2. The World of Work 3. Consumer and Buying Problems 4. Dating and Marriage 5. Civic Responsibility

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			6. Wise Use of Leisure Time
			7. Intercultural Relations and Minority Groups
8. Consuming and producing	5. How can I best use my spare time?	6. History and Government in Denver	8. Postwar Planning
9. Communicating and transporting	6. How can I become part of the school?	*b)* Tomorrow's Pattern	9. Health
	7. How can I work better with others as a leader and a follower?	*c)* Operation and Effect of These Trends upon our Own Community	10. Religion
	8. What is my responsibility for my property and that of others?	4. What This Means for the Individual	
	9. How can I understand those of different race and religion?		
	Other contributory units in seventh and eighth grades deal with the same theme.		

In addition to the units listed, a number of contributory units are required at each grade level except the twelfth. These grow out of the general-education program and are taught by specialists in speech, art, music, etc. At the eleventh-grade level the contributory units all deal with American history.

TABLE 6

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE OF THE GENERAL-EDUCATION CURRICULUM, PASADENA, CALIFORNIA

SEQUENCE

SCORE	Grade VII	Grade VIII	Grade IX	Grade X	Grade XI	Grade XII
	How can we use and modify our natural environment to make satisfactory adjustments?	*How can we improve our personal-social relationships?*	*How can we improve our social-civic relationships?*	*How can we understand and what should be our relationship toward current problems?*	*The United States*	*Social Problems**
1. Attaining health	*Units*	*Units*	*Units*	*Units*	1. Basic structure of federal government	1. National social problems
2. Engaging in recreation	1. Orientation to new situations	1. How do frontiers influence American life?	1. How can we improve our self-government?	1. How can we understand and use the agencies of communication?	2. How the U. S. became what it is today	2. International problems

3. Satisfying spiritual and ethical needs	2. How can we more intelligently use food?	2. How do the contributions of different groups of people enrich our American life?	2. How can we better utilize and improve programs of social betterment?	2. How can we further the democratic ideal?	*a)* Territorial
					   b) Agricultural
					   c) Continuing industrial revolution
						3. Personal economics

4. Expressing aesthetic impulses	3. How can we more intelligently use our water supply?	3. How does the developing idea of freedom influence our American life?	3. How can I gain a better understanding of my vocational opportunities?	3. How can we promote better international coöperation?	3. Nature and history of American culture	4. Everyday psychology
5. Making a home	4. How can we more intelligently use our textiles?				4. Structure of state and local governments	5. Sociology of marriage
6. Securing and providing for education	5. How can we more intelligently use our building materials?				5. Functions and problems of government today	
7. Transporting goods and people					6. The U. S. in a world society	
8. Communicating ideas						
9. Conserving and improving natural resources						

* Each of these is a three-unit course. Terminal students are required to elect two of these courses.

Programs utilizing student interests provide for considerable flexibility and choice. This is desirable according to Harap, who says that

an allocation of grade centers of interest or units of work is tentative and . . . the environment, recent events, the seasons, the ability of pupils, and the choice of the pupils themselves will determine exactly what enterprises should be undertaken in any grade.[24]

Criteria for Determining Sequence

In deciding which principles to use in determining sequence, or whether a combination of two or more would be more satisfactory, schools may find the following criteria useful.

1. *Does the sequence provide for comprehensiveness and balance in the program?*

2. *Does it provide for coördination and continuity not only within but also between each major administrative unit of the school system?*

3. *Does it make possible and encourage continual curriculum revision?* Kai Jensen, writing in the *Thirty-eighth Yearbook*, says:

Because of the enormous complexity of the problem the need for a tentative attitude is great. Actually, because of this need, the absence at present of cut and dried solutions may be a good thing. It is entirely possible that desirable grade placement of social-studies material may shift from year to year. Different environments play an important role; headline topics are continually shifting. Appropriate sequential arrangement of the materials and activities of the social studies is very difficult; there seems to be no optimal age at which social-studies subjects as such can be taught . . . and the process of growth and maturation themselves may be altered.[25]

4. *Does the sequence proposed draw heavily and systematically upon the experience of classroom teachers who observe at first hand how children react to learning experiences at a particular grade level?*

5. *Does it make use of available research?* Actually, the amount of research in this area is very meager at present. The adolescent studies warrant careful scrutiny by all curriculum workers; the research done on interests and motivation[26] should be used more widely; evaluation of curriculum experimentation should be continually undertaken and results made available to those schools interested in a more functional approach to education; and further study on maturation is needed.

6. *Is the proposed sequence such that there are sufficient usable materials for students and teachers so that they will not become frustrated in their attempts to work within the framework suggested?*

7. *Is the maturity of the student at various grade levels considered? Is the great variation in maturity found within each grade level pro-*

vided for? The Committee on Immediate Social Relations of Adolescents shows how this criterion would apply when they suggest, as a basis for selecting materials in the social-studies courses, the emerging needs and interests of boys and girls from the beginning of the cycle of puberty on through adolescence. These they set forth in a chart with arrows indicating the "on-goingness" of needs and interests.

1. Major emphasis on concrete, —→ More abstract and theoretical consideration of deferred goals and values.

2. Active participation, oppor- —→ Continued active participation plus tunities for "doing." (Taking increasingly more intellectual consideration of problems. trips, making things, dramatizing, etc.)

3. Motivations: establishing rela- —→ Interest in vocations, college, marriage, culture, finding place in world. tions with others; wonder about world.

4. Collecting data. (Patterns of —→ Progressively better able to interpret data. classification ensue.)

5. Home: beginning of desire for —→ Desire for mature relationship in emancipation and for new experiences outside the home; at the same time desire for security of love and understanding in home. home and participation as an adult in home life. Interpretation of family relationship in light of founding own home.

6. Relation with peers:
   a) Learning how to get along —→ Increasing insight into self and others. Psychology. with others.
   b) Experiments in relation- —→ Dating—Looking toward founding a home. ships with opposite sex, usually teasing or boisterous in nature.
   c) Beginnings of self-conscious —→ Acceptance of masculine or feminine rôle. seeking of masculine or feminine rôle.

7. Adults outside of home:
   a) Desire for security of their —→ Seeking place as an adult with other adults; need for finding a place in society. understanding, guidance and friendship.
   b) Desire for regulation and —→ Increased self-dependence; ability to take new kinds of responsibilities. direction, aid in making decisions; at the same time desire for opportunity for freedom and to assume responsibility.

8. Wonder, excitement about —→ Still on threshold of things yet un-
world. Exploration of many   discovered. Deeper insight into self
areas (science, anthropology,   and relation to culture through
comparison of cultures, trans-   comparing different cultures. Organ-
portation, etc.) in terms of   ization of understandings of social
concrete and descriptive.   phenomena. Broadening of inter-
                                     ests; specialization in certain areas.

9. Identification with immediate —→ Desire to establish self in relation to
surroundings; gang, class and   community and world. Social, eco-
school community; their prob-   nomic, political problems more
lems of government, justice,   significant as adulthood is ap-
law and order, etc. Coöpera-   proached. Interest in adult coöp-
tive living in these situations.   erative living. Continually emerg-
Learning what democracy is by   ing concept of meaning of democ-
participating in a democratic   racy through participating in a
way of life in classroom and   democratic way of life plus more
school. Beginnings of identi-   abstract consideration of it.[27]
fication with community life.

8. *Does the sequence allow for flexibility?* Various degrees of flex-
ibility are to be found in curriculums and social-studies courses at the
present time: (1) detailed courses of study in which a textbook is
prescribed for each grade level and is followed in detail from cover
to cover; (2) a sequence stated as an overarching theme or center of
interest for each grade level with varying degrees of freedom within the
stated theme; (3) a sequence which is not predetermined and which
leaves each teacher and his group of students free to work out the
program which seems best to meet the needs of the group, according to
their interests and concerns.

When an overarching theme is given, there may be a fixed list of
units required during the year in a given order; required units but
the order undetermined; suggested areas or units only a few of which
are required and those in no fixed order; or a long list of suggested
units any of which the teacher may use as he plans with his students
but none of which is required.

Although the Stanford Social Education Investigation accepted the
position that there is no one best way for defining sequence and that
there is no one sequence which is most desirable, the participating
teachers reached the conclusion that with experience, it is desirable to
move away from a fixed sequence toward greater flexibility. However,
teachers and school systems need the security, comprehensiveness, and
balance which come from a predetermined center of interest or over-
arching theme for each grade.[28]

Organization of Courses

Separate-Subjects Organization

Traditionally, the American high school has been a subject-matter institution organized according to subjects or disciplines. As new interests and demands have arisen, new courses have been added.

The tendency has been to add subjects for stated purposes and to retain the subjects after these purposes are no longer generally recognized. In some instances new purposes have been invented to give old subjects a reason for remaining in the curriculum.[29]

So strong was this tendency that the number of different courses increased

during the quarter of century ending in 1930 from 53 to 306; the largest proportionate increments had occurred in English, social studies, commercial subjects, industrial arts, fine arts, and physical education whereas least expansion had occurred in science, mathematics, and foreign language. . . .[30]

While subject fields offer a convenient way for organizing generalizations, principles, facts, and skills so that students can see relationships within the field and become proficient in the abilities stressed, there is too often little transfer from one field to another of either the knowledge or the abilities learned. Teachers complain that boys are unable to apply the simplest of arithmetical skills in the wood or machine shops, and that girls cannot divide recipes in the foods laboratory or figure percentages in family budgets. Communications skills too often remain in the English classroom, and social-studies teachers complain that students can neither read nor write effectively.

Furthermore, subject fields have been divided into numerous courses which may or may not be related. For example, a listing of the courses in history found in American high schools includes: ancient, ancient and medieval, medieval and modern, modern European, World, United States, Latin-American, Oriental, English, contemporary, and state history. Among the social studies other than history which are taught in secondary schools are to be found: economics, sociology, American problems, senior problems, community civics, vocational civics, government, international relations, geography, commercial geography, industrial geography, human geography, global geography, and economic citizenship. The multiplicity of courses found in the social studies is duplicated in practically all other departments in the high school.

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Broad-Fields Organization

Naturally, all students cannot be expected to avail themselves of the rich offerings presented. Time prevents them from taking more than a limited number. Convenient as subject-matter boundaries are for the subject-matter specialist, many teachers have come to recognize the limitations of teaching history isolated from geography, sociology, and economics or, conversely, of teaching any of the other disciplines without recognizing historical implications. Undoubtedly, the report of the Committee on the Social Studies (1916) had some influence on this trend, as did also the report of the conclusions and recommendations of the Commission on the Social Studies.[31] A reduction of the number of offerings within the social-studies department followed in many schools, and an attempt was made to fuse the various social disciplines and treat the life of a people as a whole, emphasizing social, cultural, and economic as well as political aspects of a culture. Thus the social studies were organized as a broad field.

The broad-fields organization combines or fuses the various separate subjects in a subject field, and the content is so organized that a continuous sequence can be followed in each year of the secondary school. While in some schools the identity of the various separate subjects is lost and the courses are spoken of as "Social Studies I," "Social Studies II," and the like, in other schools the fused courses may take the name of the area concerned, as, for example, "World Civilization," "Community Life," "Contemporary Problems," or "American Culture."

.This same trend is noted in other subject-matter fields. In place of separate courses in the English novel, poetry, American literature, composition, and oral English, many schools have developed a continuous English program which fuses the various subjects and provides for continuous growth in the use and appreciation of oral and written English. General-science and general-language courses have also been organized. Although the adoption of the broad-fields organization has not been the same in all departments, the tendency since 1930 has been to reduce the number of subjects offered and to design a program which has continuity so that the work of one year builds on that of the preceding.

In some schools the broad-fields organization has gone further than merely attempting to fuse the separate courses in a department while retaining the departmental organization. In these schools, various departments have been brought together to form a "small number of major trunk lines which are constant for all pupils."[32] The Texas curriculum, for example, organizes the curriculum around the following five major areas, with provisions for correlation between areas:

language arts; social relations; home and vocational arts; creative and recreational arts; and nature, mathematics, and science.[38]

Such an organization gives promise of a more functional approach to the curriculum if the broad fields do not become just a way of reshuffling and reorganizing the traditional offerings of the school. If each field is approached from the point of view of basic student needs and interests within the demands of modern culture, and the curriculum is organized to help youth solve those problems which are of concern to them and to develop characteristics of behavior necessary to achieve democratic values, this type of broad-fields organization is a decided improvement over the separate-subject-field organization. Too often, however, little fundamental reorganization has taken place even though several courses have been correlated or fused and the number of separate courses offered has been reduced.

General-Education Curriculum

The more functional approach to curriculum-building and the definition of scope and sequence in terms of areas of human relationship, social functions, or social processes in accordance with the emerging needs of youth have caused curriculum committees, faculties, and educators in general to advocate a much more thorough reorganization of the secondary school. No longer does the highly departmentalized, separate-subjects organization or even the broad-fields organization satisfactorily meet the demands placed upon it in developing in boys and girls the competence needed for today's tasks. Hence, some schools have attempted to develop an organization which provides more adequately for general educational needs and yet at the same time leaves ample opportunity for boys and girls to explore and develop their special interests and aptitudes.

General education is the term used to indicate those experiences which are provided to meet the personal-social needs which are common to all or most of the young people growing up in a democratic society. As such, it cuts across subject-matter boundaries and draws on all the material which will help boys and girls to develop the characteristics of behavior required by competent, mature, democratic citizens. While the general-education portion of the curriculum should be taken by all students during their entire school career, it should not be confused with what have commonly been called required courses. It is not general education because it is required; but it is required because its purpose is to help boys and girls develop into competent, intelligent citizens by meeting needs which are real and meaningful to them. Subject matter is selected in terms of its usefulness to youth in meeting their needs and in developing their social competence.

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In some schools this portion of the curriculum is called the *core curriculum* or *core classes;* in others, it is known as the *basic course;* still others prefer to speak of it as the *general-education program* or *general-education classes;* and the Educational Policies Commission calls it *common learnings.*[34] All these names are often used loosely and are applied to required courses which fail to meet the criteria of general education as here defined. Social studies and English courses of a specialized nature are not general education even though they are required, nor do courses become core courses merely through a correlating or fusing of two subject-matter fields. Basic and fundamental reorganization should accompany the fusion process whereby the focal point becomes the development of integrated boys and girls.

The amount of time given to general education varies from school to school and from grade to grade. Most of the schools which have reorganized their curriculums around the general-education concept have worked on the assumption that most of the problems and interests of pre-adolescents are shared by other children and, therefore, that the portion of the curriculum devoted to meeting these common needs should take most of the child's time. As these needs are met, however, more and more time should be freed for young people to develop their special interests and aptitudes in the portion of the curriculum designed to meet individual needs and known as *special education.* This includes specialized courses in mathematics, language, science, social studies, music, art, and the like. As shown below, the curriculum might be presented as showing the general-education program occupying less and less of the student's time as he moves progressively

Daily Periods

Grades	1	2	3	4	5	6
XII						
XI	——→			Special Education		
X						
IX	General Education ——→					
VIII						
VII						

The grades are listed down the side of the diagram and the six daily periods
across the top

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through the secondary school and special education consuming more and more of his time. According to this, in the elementary school and probably in the seventh grade almost all the student's time would be spent in the general-education or core portion of the curriculum. Starting with the ninth grade and increasing each year through the twelfth, more time would be allowed for special education until practically all of the student's day in the last year of his high-school course would be taken up with his special needs and interests.

The proposed program for youth in "American City," as outlined by the Educational Policies Commission and expanded by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, allows two periods for individual interests in grades VII, VIII, IX, and X; three in grades XI and XII; and four in grades XIII and XIV (see chart below). In senior high school and junior college the major portion of this time would be devoted to vocational preparation.[35]

The programming of students in the general-education program also follows various patterns. In making the transition from a departmentalized, separate-subjects organization to a general-education organization, some schools have been concerned about the dangers of too rapid change and have retained the separate classroom, one-period class but have attempted to facilitate coöperation between teachers of the same group of students. Thus, instead of abolishing subject areas as such, the approach to curriculum modification is made through the daily teacher-conference hour when teachers handling the same group of children meet to plan together the curriculum experiences needed to

Daily Periods

The grades are listed down the side of the diagram and the six daily periods across the top

meet the needs of a particular group of boys and girls. Through the conference hour the work of each class is related to the others, and each teacher knows what is going on in every other classroom so that she can plan activities with her students which will fit into the total program. The daily conference hour also provides better opportunity for counseling and guiding students, for it enables the teachers handling particular students to discuss their problems together and reach a decision or determine a course of action. The conference hour has proved particularly successful in the Pasadena junior high schools, where most of the teachers are engaged in general education. The conference hour is considered as part of the school day, and teachers meet by grade levels to plan and organize the materials of instruction and classroom experiences.[36]

Another technique for scheduling is known as the block schedule. It retains some aspects of the separate-subjects organization and yet provides for a concerted, united attack on student needs and coöperative teaching in meeting needs. Under this plan, if two teachers are involved, one an English and the other a social-studies teacher, the students to be taught by them are divided into Groups A and B. Group A goes to the English teacher the first period in the day and to the social-studies teacher the second period. Group B has just the reverse schedule. If a third teacher is drawn into the block, as, for example, a science teacher, the students are divided into Groups A, B, and C. Group C rotates with Groups A and B among the three teachers. Usually when the block schedule is used, the teacher-planning period is also used so that the two or three teachers may meet and plan together. This technique was used so successfully by the Salt Lake City teachers participating in the Investigation that other teachers asked to be scheduled in a block so that they too might participate in the general-education program. (For sample block schedules see p. 100.)

The most common method of programming used in core or general-education curriculums is to schedule a group of children with the same teacher for two or three consecutive periods, depending upon the time allotted to the general-education program. This teacher, sometimes referred to as the "master teacher," assumes the responsibility for planning and directing all the general educational experiences of the group, for counseling the students, and for directing them into other classes where their special interests can be met (see chart, p. 101). The teacher in this program must himself have a broad general education; for although he may be able to call on various subject-matter specialists for help, he has the responsibility for giving to the young people entrusted to him purposeful experiences so that they

Examples of Organizations Showing Block Schedule

2-Period Block Schedule

Periods	English	Social Studies
1	Group A	Group B
2	Group B	Group A
3	Teacher Conference Hour	

3-Period Block Schedule

Periods	English	Social Studies	Science
1	Group A	Group B	Group C
2	Group B	Group C	Group A
3	Group C	Group A	Group B
4	Teacher Conference Hour		

4-Period Block Schedule

Periods	Social Living	Shops and Laboratory
1	Group A	Group B
2		
3	Group B	Group A
4		

Examples of Organizations Showing Master Teacher Technique

Periods	
1	General Education
2	½ Day
3	
4	
5	Special Education
6	

Periods	
1	General Education
2	⅓ Day
3	
4	
5	Special Education
6	

Periods	
1	General Education
2	(Academic)
3	
4	General Education
5	(Shops, Laboratories
6	Studio, Playground)

may grow and develop into well-integrated individuals capable of solving their personal-social problems and adjusting successfully to life's demands.

All the schools in the Investigation had some double-period classes, as Table 7 shows. David Starr Jordan High School in Long Beach and Menlo School also experimented with a three-period class taught by one teacher. In both the seventh and eighth grades at Baker Junior High School, Denver, Colorado, the children were scheduled for two two-hour-period classes, one known as "Social Living," the other as "Personal Living" (shops and laboratory).

The general-education curriculum has many advantages:

1. *It cuts across subject-matter boundaries and draws upon material from all fields for the solution of problems.*—Problems which concern adolescents and adults are not respecters of the subject-matter boundaries into which knowledge has been divided. The solution of most problems requires information and skills which traditionally fall in several departments. If problems in the area of consumer economics,

TABLE 7

SOCIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN THE INVESTIGATION SCHOOLS*

Schools	Grade VII	Grade VIII	Grade IX	Grade X	Grade XI	Grade XII
Denver Baker Junior High School West Senior High School	*Living at Home and at School*	*Community Life*	Group Relationship in Immediate Environment	Participation in Socially Significant Activities		Plan for Democratic Living
Eugene Eugene Junior and Senior High Schools	*Northwest Region*	*American Culture*	*Community Living*	*Growth of Mankind Toward Democratic Way of Life*	American Life and Institutions	Senior Problems
Fortuna Fortuna Union High School			*Orientation* (School and Community)	World Culture	United States History	Senior Problems
Long Beach Jordan High School				*World Culture*	*United States History and Government*	Social and Economic Problems
Los Angeles Gompers Junior High School	*Community Living—VII A* *New World Beginnings—VII B*	United States a Nation	British Commonwealth The Orient Inter-American Relations Articulation to Senior High School			

TABLE 7—Continued

Schools	Grade VII	Grade VIII	Grade IX	Grade X	Grade XI	Grade XII
Menlo Park Menlo School and Junior College			*Community Living*	World History	*United States History*	Contemporary Problems
Pasadena Junior High School Junior College	*Natural Environment*	*Personal-Social Relationships*	*Social-Civic Relationships*	*Current Problems*	The United States	Social Problems
Redwood City Sequoia Union High School			*World History*		American History	Senior Problems
Salt Lake City Bryant Lower Division East High School		*Community Problems*	*Regional Problems* (Block Schedule)	*World Culture* (Block Schedule)	*American History and Civilization* (Block Schedule)	*American Problems* (Block Schedule)
Seattle Lincoln High School Franklin High School			*Living in the Northwest*	*International Culture*	Studies in American Life	Economic Relationships (1 semester) Pacific Rim (1 semester)

* Courses in italics are double-period courses taught by either one or two teachers. Where two periods were used, English was generally fused with the social studies and content was drawn from any subject area that contributed to the cultures, topics, and problems studied.

for example, are to be solved, one needs material traditionally found in commerce, home economics, social studies, mathematics, English, art, science, and perhaps other departments. In fact, because this is true of so many problems, the curriculum has become cluttered up with many units which are taught repetitiously in different departments, with little or no attempt made to coördinate them. In fact, teachers in one department may be ignorant of what is being taught in other departments in the same school. Departments, too, have been guilty of claiming "vested interests" for themselves and have resented other departments using materials which they asserted fell within their departmental territory. General education, by focusing on needs and problems which young people have in common, has made it possible for students to study a problem from all its angles in one class and thus to obtain a better understanding of it.

2. *It leaves the elective portion of the curriculum free to focus upon the special needs and interests of boys and girls.*—When the common problems and needs of boys and girls are handled in the general-education portion of the curriculum, the elective portion of the curriculum is left free for the special needs and interests of students, who are directed into elective courses in accordance with lacks and inadequacies revealed in the general-education program or because of special aptitudes, interests, and needs. The richness of this portion of the curriculum depends, of course, on the resources of the school and the ingenuity and initiative of the teaching staff. Vocational needs, special talents and interests, and deficiencies should all be cared for in special-education classes. Adequate shops, studios, laboratories, workshops, library facilities, and playgrounds should be provided to care adequately for special needs and interests. The richer and more flexible this portion of the curriculum, the better the needs of students will be met.

3. *It emphasizes the necessity for teachers to work coöperatively in planning the educational experiences of students.*—The importance of the teacher conference hour has already been pointed out. Coöperative teaching is particularly necessary in the junior high school, where general education includes practically all the curriculum, and in schools using block schedules if these schedules are to be more than administrative devices. It is less necessary when the "master teacher" technique is used, but even then close coöperation must take place if the teachers of electives are to know what has been studied in general education and if their courses are to supplement and not duplicate the general-education program.

4. *It especially emphasizes the importance of student-teacher plan-*

ning because it focuses upon the personal-social needs of pupils.—Obviously, if the general-education program is to meet the personal-social needs of boys and girls, they must have a voice in determining not only the problems studied but the activities to be undertaken, the procedures to be used, the materials to be studied, and the outcomes desired. The rigidity or flexibility with which the scope and sequence are defined determines the degree of student-teacher planning which is possible. Since planning is a democratic process considered necessary for democratic citizens, the teachers in the Social Education Investigation believed that opportunities for planning should be progressively given to students as they demonstrated ability to plan effectively and to carry out their plans. With a flexible program, especially when teachers do not progress with student groups from grade to grade, student participation in planning is necessary in order that undesirable duplication may be avoided and so that students may recognize their needs and identify themselves with the problems studied.

5. *It provides for a larger block of time in which to consider problems.*—With the exception of the senior year, almost all core or general-education programs provide for a larger block of time than the customary school period of from forty-five to sixty minutes. The amount of time varies from a double period to the entire day. This has decided advantages when excursions are undertaken or when students are engaged in construction work of various kinds. Clocks and bells are no longer masters of the situation, and students can work on the problem at hand as long as interest and efficiency permit.

6. *It offers greater flexibility in organization, procedure, content, and materials.*—The longer period of time makes possible many procedures not feasible in a shorter period. Field trips, excursions, committee work, laboratory periods, use of visual and audio-aids can all be used more effectively. Where block schedules are used, many possible combinations of the group can be made. Groups A, B, and C may meet as a large group for panel discussions, movies, social activities, and the like; students who are having some particular difficulties can be formed into a small group for special help; and the groups may be completely regrouped for study according to the help which they need or the sub-problems on which they are working. With a longer period of time, with three or more teachers working in a block, and with three or more rooms located in one section of the building assigned to the block, the flexibility of the instructional program is almost unlimited.

West High School in Denver has developed a flexible program unique in general-education organization. The general-education program in grades IX, X, and XI is a two-period program. In one period a group

of students is enrolled with a teacher who assumes responsibility for guiding the students as well as for giving them the experiences they need to live effectively in their culture. The second period is made up of a number of contributory units which grow out of the general course and are taught by specialists in speech, art, music, and the like.

7. *It affords greater opportunity for more effective guidance because of the emphasis on the student and his needs and because of the longer period of time which general-education teachers have with the students in their classes.*—In most schools where a general-education program has been introduced, the core teacher is considered the guidance teacher and is charged with the responsibility of guiding and counseling the students in the group. With the longer period of time, teachers have fewer students and hence can know each student in the group better—his background, his needs, and his interests. In some schools, such as Roosevelt Junior High School in Eugene, Oregon, the general-education teacher stays with the same group of students from the time they enter the seventh grade until they graduate. These teachers know their students more thoroughly and can give competent guidance.

8. *It emphasizes the development of the whole personality of the student and is as much concerned with the development of such characteristics as attitudes, interests, critical thinking, and social sensitivity as with the acquisition of skills and information.*—Centered upon the student and his needs and using subject matter only as required in the development of personal-social competence, the general-education program can emphasize the total development of the individual—his physical, emotional, and social growth as well as his intellectual development. Thus the emphasis in general education is shifted from subject matter as such to the student and his needs. The fundamentals are taught and knowledge is acquired, not just for themselves, but because young people have a need for them and recognize that need.

Social education includes those experiences which are designed to help individuals improve their relationships in group living. Thus it includes not only general education but also those experiences in special education which are provided to meet vocational and avocational needs and interests which some young people have in their social relationships. Hence, while general education should provide those experiences which will enable all young people to participate competently in group living, those courses in special education which deal with social relationships are also social education and should be included in the high-school program for boys and girls with special interests in social relations either from a vocational or from an avocational point of view.

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5

ORGANIZATION OF LEARNING EXPERIENCES

The Unit

THE SUBJECT-MATTER and learning experiences which constitute courses in the social studies commonly are organized into units. While it is true that little difference can be found between some of the courses organized into so-called *units* and the topical outline courses of an earlier day (except that the name *unit* rather than *topic* is applied to a block of work), in most cases *unit* refers to material organized around a common principle, process, culture, or area of living and directed toward the achievement of significant outcomes, thus giving unity to learning experiences. The popularity of the unit as a way of organizing materials is shown in the replies given by social-studies teachers to a questionnaire sent out by the National Education Association in 1936. The data given in Table 8 show that elementary, junior high school, and senior high school teachers greatly prefer "projects, units, and activities" to all other forms of presenting teaching materials. It is probable that even more courses would be organized as units if teacher preference were followed, for nearly twice as many teachers preferred to use material organized in units or projects as were actually doing so. That teachers who have the opportunity to use units continue to prefer that type of organization was brought out by the same survey, as the data in Table 9 show.

Although unit organization is based upon the ideas of Herbart, Charles A. McMurray, Dewey, and their followers, the impetus to the current interest in units undoubtedly came from Morrison and his popularization of the "mastery technique." Morrison was concerned about the mass of unrelated facts and nonteachable material found in traditional textbooks. He was convinced that students could not learn such material because there was nothing to understand, and he believed that order and synthesis must be given to subject matter if it is to be understood. In 1926, he published his conception of a unit as a means of transforming the curriculum into a body of meaningful experiences which would modify children's behavior. Morrison defined a learning

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unit as "a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, of an organized science, of an art, or of conduct, which being learned results in an adaptation in personality."[1] According to him, the basis for unification is the thing-to-be-learned, the subject matter of the unit. But the aspect of the environment, of science, or of art which is the unifying core of the unit must be comprehensive enough to make the unit worth while and significant enough to contribute, when learned, to a fundamental change in the child's behavior. Comprehensiveness and significance thus became to the followers of Morrison the criteria for determining a good unit.

This concept of the unit was seized upon by social-studies teachers as a cure for all the ills of the social-studies curriculum. "To say that the idea spread rapidly would be putting the matter very mildly," according to Rolla M. Tryon. "It simply swept the country during the three years following 1928. By 1932, it was a rare happening for a course of study in the social sciences to appear that made no use of the unit-of-understanding idea."[2]

It is not surprising, therefore, that many people adopted the unit without understanding Morrison's concept of it or that it came to mean so many different things to those who used it. Some people considered it just a convenient subdivision of history or of subject matter such as one would find in a chapter of a book or a topical out-line. Others thought of it as any experience or activity. The National Education Association in its survey used *unit, project,* and *activity* interchangeably but differentiated them from *problems.* Carey, Hanna, and Meriam found it impossible to distinguish among these types of curriculum organization;[3] and Ernest Horn concluded that "the purposes of the children, the interest accompanying the enterprise, and the enlargement of knowledge and insight are essentially the same under all of these terminologies."[4] Michener and Long, in their study of the literature dealing with social-studies units, found that most writers who use the term are agreed that *"a social studies unit, whether for teacher or student, is an organization of information and activities focused upon the development of some significant understanding, attitude, or appreciation which will modify behavior."*[5]

While it is true that most educators today agree that a unit must have a focal point around which to organize activities and materials, they are not agreed as to whether that focal point should be generalizations, a social process, an experience, a problem, an activity, an interest, a need, an aspect of the environment, or a life situation. They are agreed, at least nominally, that no unit should include subject matter merely for the sake of the subject matter, but rather that the material

included in a unit should bear directly upon the generalizations, the process, the problem, or the attitude which constitutes the unit and toward which all learning is directed. Since a unit of work should modify behavior, educators also agree that it should have social significance and should recognize the needs and interests of the students

TABLE 8*

PER CENT OF TEACHERS AT EACH SCHOOL LEVEL USING AND PREFERRING VARIOUS FORMS OF PRESENTATIONS IN COURSE-OF-STUDY BULLETINS

SPECIFIC FORMS OF BULLETINS	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL		JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL		SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL		TOTALS ALL LEVELS	
	Prac-tice	Prefer-ence	Prac-tice	Prefer-ence	Prac-tice	Prefer-ence	Prac-tice	Prefer-ence
Topical outline.	37.6	9.7	33.1	8.1	42.7	18.1	37.9	12.1
Detailed narra-tive and de-scription.....	6.2	2.3	2.8	2.0	2.9	1.9	3.9	2.0
Questions and answers......	2.9	1.0	2.8	.8	3.4	1.1	3.1	1.0
Problems......	4.4	10.7	10.5	16.1	8.8	13.8	8.0	13.6
Projects, units, and activities.	43.4	72.5	39.1	64.1	30.7	55.1	37.5	63.7
Combinations..	5.6	3.8	11.6	8.9	11.5	10.0	9.6	7.6
Total.......	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

* *Source:* National Education Association, Research Division, *Improving Social Studies Instruction,* Research Bulletin, Vol. XV, No. 5 (Washington: The Association; November 1937), p. 207.

TABLE 9*

*PER CENT OF TEACHERS USING CERTAIN TYPES OF COURSE OF STUDY AND PREFERRING TO USE SAME TYPE

Type of Course of Study	Elementary School	Junior High School	Senior High School	Total
Topical outline.........	23.3	19.9	36.7	27.5
Detailed narrative and description.......	16.7	35.7	42.9	27.6
Questions and answers...	23.1	15.4	5.9	14.0
Problems.............	61.9	65.4	60.0	62.7
Projects, units, and activities...........	88.1	96.8	92.9	92.5

* *Source:* National Education Association, Research Division, *Improving Social Studies Instruction,* Research Bulletin, Vol. XV, No. 5 (Washington: The Association; November 1937), p. 207.

who study it.[6] In actual classroom situations these characteristics of a unit, however, may be forgotten, and any block of material studied for several days or several weeks may be called a unit. Thus, there is considerable accuracy in Caswell and Campbell's conclusion that in common practice there is agreement concerning the meaning of *unit* in only one respect; namely, that the scope of a unit and the time required for studying it are greater than in individual lessons or daily recitations.[7]

This variation in the meaning of *unit* probably accounts for its widespread use by social-studies teachers. Supporters of almost any educational theory can find some form of the unit which they are willing to accept. Those who believe that social competence depends upon the facts and information which one has at his command find in unit plans which stress the memorization of information a method of organizing subject matter which is superior to the daily assignment and recitation in accomplishing this objective. Those who believe that education is concerned with the total development of the individual find in the unit plan a method for selecting and organizing subject-matter content and activities that will focus them upon the objectives, the needs, and the interests of the student and will result in personality development and changes in behavior.

Numerous research studies have been carried on to discover the relative value of the unit when compared with some other method of organizing subject matter and classroom activities. Most of the studies have compared the unit and the daily-recitation or textbook method. The superiority of one method over the other has been judged primarily on the basis of the amount of information acquired by the students, although the acquisition of information is not the chief advantage claimed for the unit plan. According to this criterion, all but one of the six studies reviewed by Davey and Hill point to the superiority of the unit method. Since, in the one study where no superiority was shown by either group, the students in the group using daily assignments had previously acquired the ability to study independently and to organize material effectively, it is probable, Davey and Hill believe, that the earlier training carried over and that the students in this group continued to use study habits already formed, even though the classroom procedure in the experiment followed daily assignments and recitation. The evidence in these studies not only showed the ineffectiveness of the daily recitation in comparison with unit assignments in the acquisition of information but also showed that the experimental groups using the unit method tended to read more widely and to develop greater initiative and self-dependence

in study habits.[8] Phillips, after examining some seventy studies in the field of methods in the social studies, reached somewhat different conclusions from Davey and Hill. He concluded that there is a

widespread interest in such devices as large unit procedures, newer concepts of mastery and mastery techniques, laboratory procedures and individual work, and varying degrees of socialization in place of the more formal recitation technique. In general the trend seems to be in the direction of greater opportunity for pupil initiative and activity, socialization in classroom procedures, and richer and fuller concepts of mastery and standards of performance. And although the statistical evidence fails to prove that any of the newer procedures are superior to the old, still there is plenty of other evidence in the majority of studies that indicates that these newer procedures are stimulating in their effect on teachers and pupils, and that, in spite of the general admission that they make both teachers and pupils work harder, the newer methods are more popular than the old.[9]

Approaches to Instruction

The type of units into which a course in social studies is organized depends almost entirely on the approach used. In most social-studies classrooms, one finds the subject matter and learning experiences selected and organized into units according to one of three approaches: chronological, topical, or problem-solving. The staff of the Stanford Social Education Investigation found this a more meaningful way of classifying social-studies units than the method used by some educators who speak of "functional" and "traditional" subject-matter units, "center of interest" units, units of "adaptation," and "experience" units.[10] The staff maintained that all good units should develop generalizations; should be built on significant aspects of the environment and culture; and should be related to the interests, purposes, and needs of the students who study them. Units which fail to meet these criteria are of doubtful value in the social-studies curriculum; hence, a classification which recognizes more than one phase of a good unit is more meaningful.

Chronological Approach

The chronological approach is the unique contribution of history to the social studies. History courses, in large part, are organized chronologically. This is indicated by the fact that history textbooks, with very few exceptions, are organized on a chronological framework. The Subcommittee on United States History and Civics of the California Committee for the Study of Education found this approach to be most frequently used in the senior high school United States history course in California. The Subcommittee's questionnaire, sent to "small,

medium, and large high schools in every part of the state," showed that of a total of fifty-three responses, five courses were organized on a strictly chronological approach and thirty-four were "chronological within broad units covering basic movements in American history." Only thirteen were organized on the basis of topic or problem units, and one approach was unclassifiable.[11]

Characteristics of the chronological approach.—Chronological units are usually organized around some significant historical period, culture, epoch, or movement. When this approach is used, a certain period of history is taken and all the events connected with it—social, economic, and political—are considered before the next historical period is studied. This does not mean that a field of history can be divided arbitrarily into ten or twelve units of equal size or that each chapter in the history textbook automatically becomes a unit. Chronological units, like all other units, should meet the criteria of a good unit. The material and activities should be selected in terms of generalizations or social processes which provide the focal points for organization; the unit should be significant enough to warrant consideration; and it should meet the needs and interests of those who study it. As Morrison pointed out:

> In every case, the unit itself and its elements are in the form of understandings to be arrived at and not in the form of narratives of events. Each element is a point in the argument which develops the intellectual attitude which the unit stands for.[12]

Numerous examples of history courses which follow the chronological approach could be cited. The unit plan adopted by the Salt Lake City schools for American history in the senior high school, for example, is of this type (see Table 10).

Epoch 1. The Growth of Democracy in America
Epoch 2. Our National Government and Its Strong Foundations
Epoch 3. Regional Interests in America
Epoch 4. Epic of the Frontier
Epoch 5. The Rise of Industrialism in America
Epoch 6. America and the World
Epoch 7. Post-War America
Epoch 8. Democracy on Trial[13]

Although there is some overlapping in the time covered by these units, they follow on the whole a chronological sequence. Epoch 1, according to the course of study, is designed to trace the rise of democracy from its earliest beginnings to the end of the American Revolution; Epoch 2 focuses on the establishment of the Constitution and the

organization of the new government; the unit on regional interests is primarily the story of the quarrel between the North and the South over slavery and ends with the withdrawal of Federal troops from southern territory; "The Epic of the Frontier" covers the whole of the nineteenth century; "The Rise of Industrialism" stresses developments since the Civil War; and the last three units focus on events of the twentieth century. The basis for unification in each of these units consists of generalizations around which the subject matter, pupil activities, and reading materials are organized. The following generalizations serve as focal points for the second unit, "Our National Government and Its Strong Foundations":

1. Common experiences tended to unite the colonies.
2. The social, political, and economic conditions following the American Revolution, together with the weaknesses of the central government of the United States under the Articles of Confederation, were important factors in establishing the Constitution of the United States.
3. The Federal Constitution furnished the framework for the government of the United States.
4. The method provided for amending the United States Constitution, the lack of specific detail, together with the "general welfare" and the "necessary and proper" clauses, have made it a flexible document capable of growth and development essential to fulfill the needs of a changing society.
5. The people of the United States hold the sovereign power and put into operation the plan of government outlined by the Constitution which brought order and stability out of chaos.[14]

Thus a unit organized chronologically can use generalizations as the focal point around which the selection of materials and the activities are organized. Chronological units can also be based on centers of interest and on pupil needs and purposes if teachers and curriculum-builders are conscious of the personal-social needs and interests of adolescents and select activities with them in mind. This, however, calls for a clear statement on the part of teachers and students of the objectives which they hope to develop and a direction of the learning activities in terms of those objectives.

Because boys and girls are usually more interested in the immediate than in the remote, some writers argue that chronological units should start with the present and develop in reverse order. This method has been called the psychological approach to history, for it attempts to emphasize the nature of the learning process and to organize subject matter in accordance with the needs and interests of students. The idea of approaching history from the known and immediate and then moving to the unknown and remote appears sound on the surface,

but in actual practice it has usually been found to be "unwieldy, illogical, and confusing."[15] History is the story of man's progress. It should show cause-and-effect relationships, continuity, and development. This is impossible when it is taught in reverse order. Consequently, teachers who wish to capitalize on interest in contemporary events to motivate the study of a chronological unit have found a situation in contemporary culture analogous to one in the period covered in the unit and have used it to motivate the study of a culture of another time and another place.

Chronological units have sometimes been called cultural units. "Life in Ancient Greece," "The Roman Empire," and "The Renaissance and the Reformation" are units in which the culture of a particular people or a particular epoch is studied. The culture thus becomes the unifying basis in these units. The world-civilization course in Salt Lake City lists the following units:

Epoch 1. The Life and Cultural Development of Prehistoric Man and the Ancient Orient
Epoch 2. The Life and Culture of Ancient Greece
Epoch 3. The Life and Cultural Development of Ancient Rome
Epoch 4. The Ever-Changing Social Order of the Middle Ages
Epoch 5. The Development of Nationalism
Epoch 6. The Age of Revolutions
Epoch 7. The Development of Democracy During the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries, Including World War I
Epoch 8. Modern Civilization on Trial[16]

Activities and materials in chronological units may be organized around basic social processes or basic social functions such as those suggested by Marshall and Goetz. Each of the Salt Lake City units, for example, attempts to include materials and activities which explain how people in each culture or epoch carried on basic social functions by (1) coöperating in social and civic action, (2) conserving and improving material conditions, (3) making a living, (4) making a home, (5) protecting life and maintaining health, (6) securing an education, (7) engaging in recreational activities, and (8) satisfying aesthetic and religious impulses. These basic functions form the scope of the social-studies program.

The distinguishing characteristic of the chronological approach is that the events of history which center about a culture, a generalization, or a movement are divided horizontally into a series of units and the time sequence controls the order in which the units are studied. Because chronology must be observed, there can be little flexibility in the selection of the units to be studied in a field of history such as Ameri-

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can, ancient, medieval, modern, or world. There can, of course, be flexibility within the units, the amount of flexibility depending to a large extent on the basis of unification and the objectives which the teacher and the students seek to achieve.

Advantages and disadvantages of the chronological approach.—Many criticisms have been voiced against a strict adherence to the chronological approach. Wesley cites the following as made by 1900:

1) that the chronological organization stressed history at the pupil's expense

2) that the pupils had, previous to the age of thirteen or fourteen, almost no appreciation of chronology . . . ,

3) that cause and effect relationships were obscured by intervening irrelevancies, and

4) that topics and problems were broken into fragments because of the dictates of chronology.[17]

Other criticisms have been that the chronological approach is useful "only to the trained historian as a structure about which to relate new information,"[18] that it stresses "ground to be covered" at the expense of the development of understanding, and that relationships of the past to the present and future are often neglected.[19] As Wesley says, "Perhaps the most unfortunate result of the too literal adherence to chronology was the consequent unpopularity of history, which came to be regarded as a dry and mechanically arranged subject."[20] Some of the criticisms of the chronological approach are the result of abuse and poor teaching rather than of something inherent in the approach itself. Other criticisms point to advantages which may be secured through other approaches. In spite of the criticism of the chronological approach, it has many positive advantages when properly used. Among those often cited are the following:

1. It provides an orderly and logical study of important trends and issues which have contributed to or hindered the growth of civilization. A knowledge of these trends and issues is necessary to an understanding of the present.

2. Its use permits the student to see a period of history or the life of a people as a unit in which the religious, political, social, and economic problems are considered in their proper relationship. A study of the wider scene before forming judgments on issues involved will help to prevent gaps in the students' knowledge which might affect the accuracy of their judgment.

3. The study of man's achievements through the ages, together with the causes and effects involved, gives the student a clearer perspective against which to see the problems of the present-day world.

4. It gives students a clearer concept of the evolutionary process by which social change can be brought about.

5. It deepens appreciation for our cultural heritage and for the achievements of preceding generations and may lead to worthwhile leisure time interests which will deepen and enrich the life of the individual.

6. It can be planned in detail in advance so that the whole social studies program will have continuity, balance, and vertical articulation.[21]

The Report of the Subcommittee on United States History and Civics of the California Committee for the Study of Education states the case for the chronological approach when it says:

History alone, of all these subjects, places first emphasis upon the idea of temporal sequence, or chronology. It views human society as a growing organism, an organism which can no more divorce itself from its past than the adult can divorce himself from his youth. It stresses eternally the idea of *continuity* and sustains the argument of E. L. Godkin, that "Those who cannot look very far back do not look very far forward. Experience is the nurse of forethought." "Civilization," writes Alexander McLeish, "is like a spider suspended by a thread he has woven." Or, to change the figure again, when courses in the social studies emphasize adequately the third dimension—the past—they need not be deplored. But when they spend their time exclusively in the bracket of the present—in a two-dimensional world—they leave out one most vital ingredient.[22]

Topical Approach

Most social-studies courses other than history, and even some history courses, follow the topical approach. When this approach is used, all learning experiences are centered around a phase of the culture, an area of social concern, an area of interest, or a social process; as, for example, housing, nationalism, health, personality, conservation of natural resources, and crime. A topical unit should be complete in itself, capable of being understood without relation to other units. It, too, should be significant and comprehensive.

Characteristics of the topical approach.—When used in history courses, the topical approach provides for a vertical rather than a horizontal organization of history or subject matter. It draws on all related materials so that the unit will give as complete a picture as possible. A topic such as "Transportation," for example, may be studied historically, starting with transportation in prehistoric times and coming down to the present. Or the study may start with the present and work back to the earliest periods. Usually all the social studies will be drawn on for materials in order that students may gain a complete understanding of how people travel and transport goods. Some topical units, such as "Health" or "Consumer Economics," cut across not only

TABLE 10

APPROACHES TO AMERICAN HISTORY

Time Sequence	Chronological Approach* (Horizontal Organization)	Topical Approach† (Vertical Organization)
1607–1783......	Epoch 1—The Growth of Democracy in America	Unit I...... The People of the United States
1783–1800......	Epoch 2—Our National Government and Its Strong Foundations	Unit II...... Development of Political Democracy and Nationalism in the United States
1800–1876......	Epoch 3—Regional Interests in America	Unit III..... The United States as a World Power
1828–1900......	Epoch 4—Epic of the Frontier	Unit IV..... Economic Development of the United States
1860–1914......	Epoch 5—The Rise of Industrialism in America	Unit V...... Social Development of the United States
1898–1919......	Epoch 6—America and the World	Unit VI...... Government Services
1919–1932......	Epoch 7—Post-War America	
1932–Present...,	Epoch 8—Democracy on Trial	

* "Course of Study for American History and Civilization," Secondary School Program of Studies, Field of the Social Studies (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1940). (Mimeographed.)

† "Eleventh Grade Social Studies" (Long Beach, June 1942). (Mimeographed.)

the various social studies but also many other subject-matter bound-
aries, drawing upon materials in all fields which will contribute to the
understanding of the unit.

The eleventh-grade American history courses at Long Beach (see
Table 10) and at Seattle follow the topical approach, although in
Seattle an optional plan permits teachers to follow the chronological
approach if they prefer to do so. The units for the Seattle course are
listed here.

FIRST SEMESTER

    I. Overview, Including Statement of Leading Problems

    II. Our National Government and Changing Social Conditions

    III. The Evolution of American Democracy—Politics and Political
         Parties

    IV. Immigration and the Races, a Study of the American People

    V. Creation and Control of Public Opinion

  Note: It may seem advisable to the teachers of some groups to follow more
      closely, in the first semester, the chronological periods. This can be
      done by developing (1) The Evolution of Our National Govern-
      ment, (2) The Jacksonian Period and Party Machinery, (3) The
      Foundations of Our Race Problem Through Slavery and Through
      Immigration. These parallel very closely the studies listed above.

SECOND SEMESTER

 Required

    I. National Expansion and Foreign Relations

    II. Evolution of Industry, the Labor Movement, and Social Control

    III. American Society: Its Cultural and Social Aspects

 Optional

    I. Transportation and Communication

    II. Administration of Justice

    III. American Agriculture and Its Problems

    IV. Our National Resources and How We Have Used Them

    V. Money and Banking

    VI. Tariff[23]

The social-living program at Sequoia Union High School, a two-
period course required of ninth- and tenth-grade students, combines
English and history and provides for either a topical or a chronological
approach. The units suggested in Table 11 show how a world-history
course can be organized according to both approaches. Some of the
Sequoia teachers prefer to use the chronological approach during the
first year, when early civilizations are studied, and either the topical
or the problems approach during the second year, when the modern
period is studied.

A combination of the two approaches is also provided for in the
Eugene social-living program for the tenth grade. This is also a two-

TABLE 11*
APPROACHES TO WORLD HISTORY

Time Sequence	Chronological Approach (Horizontal Organization)	
—to 4000 B.C.	Unit I	Primitive Cultures
4000 B.C. to 500 B.C.	Unit II	Early Oriental Civilization
1000 B.C. to 323 B.C.	Unit III	Greek Civilization
500 B.C. to 500 A.D.	Unit IV	Roman Civilization
500–1300	Unit V	Life in Medieval Times
1300–1650	Unit VI	The Age of Transition—Renaissance and Reformation
1650–1750	Unit VII	Growth of Nationalism
1750–1850	Unit VIII	Science and Inventions
1850–1914	Unit IX	The Rise of Democracy†
1914–Present	Unit X	Interdependence

Topical Approach (Vertical Organization)

Unit I	How Men Have Met Their Three Basic Needs
Unit II	How Men Have Lived Together
Unit III	How Men Have Worked and Made a Living
Unit IV	How Men and Nature Have Affected Each Other
Unit V	Men's Search for Knowledge
Unit VI	Men's Creative Activity
Unit VII	Men's Religious Beliefs
Unit VIII	How Men Have Organized Governments
Unit IX	Public Opinion and Propaganda
Unit X	Dictators and Strong Men
Unit XI	Struggle for World Empire
Unit XII	Rise of Modern Nations
Unit XIII	Wars—Their Cause and Effects
Unit XIV	Attempts to Maintain Peace
Unit XV	Cause of Decline

* "Social Living at Sequoia Union High School" (Sequoia Union High School, September 1940). (Mimeographed.)
† An alternate plan suggests the study of contemporary cultures after the completion of the Industrial Revolution.

period course combining English and the social studies. In developing the theme for the year, "The Growth of Mankind Toward a Democratic Way of Life," the study of the history of civilization is supplemented with units of immediate personal-social importance to teen-age boys and girls. In making this a required course, the Eugene teachers acted on the assumption that an understanding of the democratic traditions should be an aspect of general education. The emphasis in the course is not on the memorization of specific information but on the development of basic understandings and generalizations concerning the traditions and background of the democratic faith.[24] The course is composed of the following units:

*1. *Orientation*
   a) How can I gain an understanding of the democratic philosophy of Eugene High School?
   b) How are school experiences so arranged as to develop intelligent leaders as well as capable followers?
   c) Why, in our society as it is today, is a high-school education of vast importance to the success of the individual?
   d) How can I make and keep school friends?
   e) How are schools provided in our country?

*2. *Earlier culture*
   a) How are the problems of the present day related to those of earlier cultures?
   b) How is our cultural advancement today based on the achievements of earlier peoples?
   c) How has our art of self-expression evolved from the earlier cultures?

*3. *Medieval cultures*
   a) How did man, in his attempt to better himself, adapt his ways of life to his environment?
   b) How have we frequently misinterpreted the splendor or barbarity of the Middle Ages?
   c) How did medieval man deal with the social problems similar to those of our day?

*4. *Cultures of the revolutions*
   a) How are present-day problems influenced by the various cultures developed through the revolutionary movements?
   b) How can the forces that bring about revolutions be controlled?
   c) What has been the influence of the revolutions on social changes?

5. *Nationalism*
   a) What have been the effects of the growth of nationalism on democracy?
   b) What has determined the rise of nationalism?
   c) What have been the positive and negative results of nationalism?

6. *Religion*
   a) How have the various religious and philosophical viewpoints figured in the onward march of civilization?
   b) How have varying religious views contributed to the enlightenment of humanity?
   c) How may the duties and obligations inseparable from the right of religious freedom make for an advancement of democratic culture?
   d) Why has the development of a moral code been an essential aspect of every civilization?

7. *Democratic governments*
   a) What determines the kind of government under which a society lives?
   b) What aspects of social behavior have brought about definite trends in the way of governing?
   c) What will determine the future rôle of government in democratic society?

*8. *Rôle of the individual*
   a) How can I determine the rôle of the successful individual in modern society?
   b) How did the rôle played by earlier man in his society indicate the nature of that society and influence the evolution of humankind physically, mentally, and spiritually?
   c) How did the ideal of Judaism and Christianity bring a vision of release to mankind?
   d) How does the complexity of modern society direct the rôle each individual must play?
   e) What are the forces that operate in a society that determine whether the rôle of the individual is to be that of conformity to a set pattern or individualism of expression?

9. *Weapons, waterways, and wheels*
   a) How have man's ways of life been adapted to, or determined by, his increasing control of the forces of nature?
   b) How can our present social-economic structure utilize the scientific method in planning for a better synchronization of the products of science and the modern democratic way of life?

10. *Resources and population*
   a) How have the settlements and movements of peoples been affected by the distribution of world resources?
   b) How does the location of natural resources affect the cultural pattern of a people?
   c) How have economic systems tied in with the exploitation of natural resources to cause a shift in the migratory movements of populations?

11. *Economic organizations and the fine arts*
    a) How did the economic organization of slavery find an expression
       through the fine arts?
    b) How did the economic organization of mechanical slavery find an
       expression through the fine arts?
    c) What has been the interaction of the economic organization of
       industrial democracy and the fine arts?

*12. *Safety in driving*
    a) In what respect is the automobile a product of international
       exchange of ideas and natural resources?
    b) How can modern youth by his knowledge of the responsibilities
       and qualifications involved in driving and by the actual use of an
       automobile determine when he has become an adult?
    c) How is the conserving of the mechanical and human assets of your
       country an act of patriotism?

Although a unit should be complete in itself, care should be taken
that students do not come to think of the material in a unit as an
isolated section of knowledge. Students should see the interrelatedness
of events and movements in the development of civilization as well as
in contemporary society and should be able to draw on the generaliza-
tions, attitudes, and appreciations acquired in one unit in the study
of each successive unit.

Topical units like the following are studied in many high-school
classes: "Crime," "Safety," "Democracy," "Housing," "Conservation,"
"Vocations," "Courtship and Marriage," "Economics," "Money and
Banking," "Big Business," "Labor," "Foreign Policy of the United
States," "Immigration," "Wise Use of Leisure Time," and so on through
the whole range of personal and social activities.

Users of the topical approach point out many advantages for it.
Among these are the following:

1. It permits the study of topics or areas which are of interest to the
   student but which are not problematical.
2. It is more flexible than the chronological approach as the arrangement
   of units is not determined by the time sequence and it, therefore,
   permits more opportunity for pupil-teacher planning.
3. By focusing upon a phase of the culture or an area of personal interest,
   the topical approach makes it possible to bring together all the material
   related to a topic so that the student gains a clearer understanding of the
   issue and sees cause and effect relationships.
4. By providing a vertical rather than a horizontal organization of history
   and subject matter, it assures more attention to contemporary issues
   and less emphasis upon the past.
5. It provides an organization for summarizing and synthesizing one's
   knowledge and understanding about an issue or a culture.

6. Each unit may be planned in detail in advance if desired, or pupils may be given a varying degree of opportunity and responsibility for planning and organizing the units which they will study.[25]

The testimony concerning the topical approach, however, is not all on one side. Among the disadvantages cited are: (1) topical units too often emphasize subject matter as an end in itself and ignore the interests and needs of students; (2) duplication and confusion often result when courses are based on unrelated topics; (3) the organization of history by topics is artificial; (4) many topics studied are above the maturity of the students; and (5) limited library materials and the lack of training in its use by teachers may make the study of topics superficial.[26]

The Problems Approach

No one yet has traced the origin of the use of problems as an approach to teaching the social studies. The emphasis on understanding the present which assumed importance around 1900, the growing intensity of social maladjustments, the increasing development and use of the scientific method, and the concern of professional educators for social utility and social efficiency—all, no doubt, influenced the beginning and development of the problems approach. It received its greatest impetus, however, from a recommendation in 1916 of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association. The committee recommended that a course called "Problems of American Democracy" be taught on the twelfth-grade level. Since then, problems courses have appeared with increasing frequency as a part of the secondary-school program of study. Most of these courses have been called "Senior Problems," "Problems of American Democracy," "Contemporary Problems," or "Problems of American Life."

Problems courses in the secondary school were established before a clear conception of the problems approach had been developed; consequently, considerable confusion resulted. In common practice so-called "problems" were actually topics stated in question form. Some educators attempted to make a distinction between topics and problems by defining *problems* as a question involving "doubt." By the early 1930's very little progress had been made in developing successful programs based on genuine, unsolved social problems. Tryon felt that the problem method as an organizer of social-studies materials had not succeeded, and he thought it probably never would succeed "above the artificial level."[27] Tryon made it clear, however, that he was discussing "the problem organization and not the problem method." He

felt that the problems approach belonged "primarily in the realm of method of instruction."

During the 1930's and early 1940's considerable progress was made in the development and application of the problems approach both as a means of organizing learning experiences and as a method of instruction. The steps in reflective thinking—the problem-solving process—as defined by Dewey[28] undoubtedly stimulated interest in problem-solving as a technique applicable to unit teaching. The Cornell Project on Critical Thinking and the schools in the Eight-Year Study,[29] as well as many other schools, began to develop classroom methods[30] and materials for improving problem-solving ability. As the result of this interest in critical thinking the National Council for the Social Studies published its yearbook on *Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies* in 1942.[31]

So interested were many of the teachers in the Stanford Social Education Investigation in problem-solving as an approach to teaching that the staff published as one of their first bulletins a statement of the characteristics of the problems approach and how it could be applied to unit teaching.[32] Thus, as a result of all these developments, the characteristics of the problems approach and its implications for social-studies instruction have become clearer.

Characteristics of the problems approach.—There are two essential characteristics of a problem: (1) it is an area of concern producing tensions which can be resolved only by a solution of the problem, and (2) it involves the choice of a course of action from among two or more possible solutions. "What rôle should the United States play in international affairs?" becomes a real problem according to these criteria. This problem has not been solved; adolescents as well as adults are vitally concerned in seeing that the United States follows the right course of action, and they feel confused or blocked in not knowing which course is best. There are several possible courses of action. Some people would have the United States assume little responsibility for international affairs. Others would have the United States take an active part in achieving and preserving a just peace. A few would have the United States become a military power strong enough to dominate the world by force. To determine intelligently one's position on this issue involves much study and the gathering of accurate and reliable information. Even then, there will undoubtedly be honest and sincere differences of opinion because individuals draw different conclusions even from the same data.

The problems approach, when used as a way of selecting and organizing curriculum materials and learning experiences for classroom

A Personal Problem   **A Social Problem**
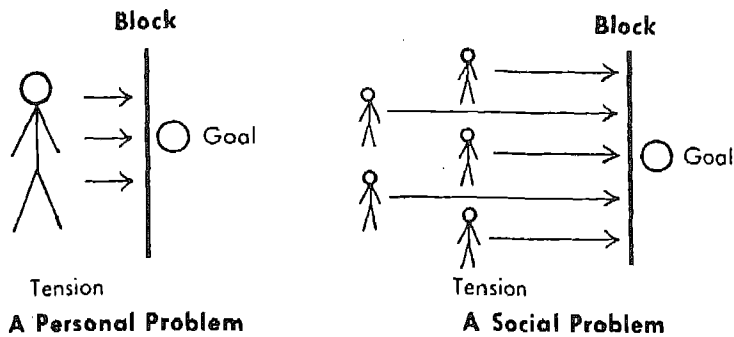
use, is in reality the application of Dewey's definition of reflective thinking to group problems and to group situations. In the thinking process, Dewey identifies five phases or steps: (1) one must feel confused, perplexed, or blocked; (2) he must intellectualize the difficulty or perplexity that he feels into a problem to be solved or a question to be answered; (3) he must use one hypothesis after another as leads in searching for factual material which will resolve the doubt, settle and dispose of the perplexity; (4) he must develop by reasoning the idea which offers the best possible solution; and (5) he must test the hypothesis by overt or imaginary action, accepting the conclusions if the experimental results agree with those rationally deducted and rejecting them if the experiment fails.[33]

A problem which is suitable for a unit of work should of course conform to this definition. It is obvious that problems which have already been solved or which have ceased to be troublesome do not produce a tension and therefore are no longer problems. Thus, problems which are selected for class consideration should be contemporary, because a present-day problem usually presents a genuine issue in which adolescents have a real interest and a vital concern. 'Problems selected for class consideration should also be ones which will lead to some form of action after the conclusions or the course of action has been determined. This does not necessarily mean that the action is immediate, direct, or overt, although certainly some of the problems studied in school should lead to overt action if the students are to understand the importance of drawing sound conclusions, of acting in the light of those conclusions, and of accepting the consequences of their course of action. There are many complex problems of national and international scope about which older adolescents are deeply concerned but about which they can do little in the way of direct action. Such problems should not be eliminated for this reason. Action in these cases can take the form of utilizing opportunities to exert some

influence with reference to the solution. It means that every student in a given group should be increasingly sensitive to the problem. He can discuss it with his age-mates and adult friends; he can help clarify the thinking of people who have not studied it. The group can submit recommendations and memorandums to senators and representatives in Washington. There are thus many ways by which students can apply the conclusions which they have drawn, by which they "can do something about it" even when the problems they have been considering are national and international in scope.

Numerous examples can be cited where study of a problem unit in school has resulted in immediate, direct, and overt action on community problems by young people and the community. The Pasadena students organized Junior War Councils as a solution to the problem "How can we participate in the war effort?" Through these councils they carried on salvage drives which realized $1100 in one semester's time; organized "minute men" to encourage war-stamp sales; organized first-aid classes and emergency organizations such as auxiliary fire detail, messenger service, canteen service, and morale committees. The students of West High School in Denver furnished one of the apartments in the Federal Housing Project located near their school to show how homes could be made comfortable and attractive on a limited budget. The students at Sequoia Union High School in Redwood City, California, convinced, as a result of their study, of the inadequacy of low-price housing in San Mateo County, surveyed the county and presented their findings to the Federal Housing Authority in such a convincing manner that a Federal Housing Project was granted to the county. Another class in this same school convinced traffic authorities of the need for traffic lights on the highway which passes their school and were responsible for the organization among business employees of "car-pooling" clubs as part of the war's rubber-conservation program.[34]

Thus, all problems selected for study should lead to some form of action. When school and community problems are studied, the action may be overt and direct; but when the problem is a complex one of national or international scope, the action may take some other form. The drawing of a conclusion from a number of possible solutions plus the "doing something about it" after the solution is reached are the features of the problems approach which distinguish it from both the topical and chronological approaches. A problems unit might, then, be defined as one in which a group of students work together on a common large problem. During the study of the unit the activities of individuals or small groups, while adapted to meet particular needs, are always related to the common large problem. Thus, all the ac-

tivities of the group and of the individuals who comprise it are directed toward the common goal of finding a solution to the problem which has been undertaken for study. The study of the problem itself and the attempts to develop conclusions concerning it are the main tasks of the group.

The problem thus becomes the unifying core of a problems unit, and all activities must have a direct bearing on arriving at a conclusion concerning it. The thinking process, or the scientific method, when applied to problem-solving consists first of all of being able to recognize and define the problem. Without a clear conception of a problem one can flounder indefinitely in attempting to achieve its solution. In carrying through the thinking process, the definition of the problem is followed by an attempt to analyze it into essential factors or subproblems so that suitable hypotheses concerning its solution may be formed. Framing hypotheses means that possible solutions to the problem are proposed. When, for example, someone states that depressions are caused by the decline in the production of capital goods, he is stating a hypothesis which demands validation or verification. Another hypothesis, however, advanced by economists is that depressions are caused by insufficient consumer purchasing power, and that only when this purchasing power is increased will the solution to unemployment and bad business be found. Both of these hypotheses are reputedly based on a study of accurate data. Two characteristics of a hypothesis are thus indicated: (1) it is based on a background of preliminary study; (2) it is merely a proposed conclusion not yet verified.

The collection, evaluation, organization, and interpretation of data which will verify or refute the hypotheses which have been proposed is the next important step in the thinking process. This calls for a scientific attitude—that is, a willingness to withhold judgment until all the facts have been examined; freedom from bias or prejudice; the ability to collect and interpret data of all kinds; and skill in distinguishing between reliable and untenable evidence, between relevant and irrelevant data, between facts and assumptions, between arguments which are sound and logical and those which are based on sophistries, fallacies, or propaganda symbols and techniques. For example, the verification or refutation of the hypothesis that compulsory health insurance is the only way to provide adequate medical care for all people in the United States calls for a thorough study of all the issues concerning the health of the nation: the adequacy of present medical care; the effectiveness of voluntary insurance and group medical plans in meeting the health needs of the country; the health of people at various

welfare levels; the cost of medical care; and the result of such a policy in countries where it has been tried. Moreover, if the hypothesis is accepted as a contribution to the solution of the problem "How can America provide adequate medical aid for all its citizens?" it should mean not only that the individual has examined all the available facts pertinent to the problem but also that he has verified the consequences of such a course of action and has found it more acceptable than other courses of action. The failure to visualize the indirect and far-reaching consequences of a course of action or to see the limitations and difficulties of putting it into practice is one of the reasons why society has failed so often to cope with its problems realistically or effectively. As someone has said, there is a great difference between immediate concern and future concern or just concern in general. Too often the immediate consequences are the only ones considered. Students need to learn that a course of action has many ramifications and that all of these must be considered in making a decision. Finally, after a decision has been made, youth as well as adults need to verify their conclusion by applying it through action directly to the problem in so far as they are able.

The problem-solving process, then, involves such behaviors as:

1. Recognizing and defining a problem
2. Analyzing the problem into its basic elements and forming tentative hypotheses
3. Collecting relevant data
4. Evaluating data
5. Organizing and interpreting data
6. Forming conclusions
7. Verifying conclusions
8. Applying conclusions

Applying conclusions to the problem, however, does not complete the problem-solving process. Few social problems are ever solved completely or for all time. Conditions change and upset even the best of solutions. Thus, the thinking process goes on continuously. A particular solution to the housing problem may be the best one for today, but tomorrow there may be need to rethink the entire situation. There may be a need to gather new data, frame new hypotheses, and try out these new hypotheses to reach new conclusions.[35]

As young people work coöperatively on problems which are real to them, they develop the understandings, values, abilities, and skills which are essential to the continued existence of a democratic society. The skills involved in the gathering of information, the interpretation of that information, the formation of generalizations, and the application of generalizations to concrete situations are essential to the coöperative problem-solving process, whether the problem be that of mass unemployment on a national scale or that of eliminating juvenile

delinquency in the local community. In every case it is a matter of carrying through the steps in good thinking on a group basis leading to group action in response to a group need.

Problems units should be selected with the needs and interests of a particular group of students in mind. Students also should have a part in the selection of the problems which they will study. This calls for a flexible program, because the problems which meet the needs and interests of one group of students may not meet the needs of another group. In order that teachers may wisely lead their students in the selection of problems, some criteria are helpful. In considering a problem for a given group of students, a teacher may ask the following questions.

1. *Is the problem sufficiently common and recurrent to justify consideration by the whole class?* Problems which concern only an individual or a small group do not meet this criterion. Problems which are of only immediate and passing interest are also of doubtful value although such interests should be capitalized on if they can be used for stimulating an interest in personal-social problems which are common and recurrent in the lives of many people. "How can I get money for a bicycle?" may be an immediate problem for some members of the class, but it would not meet this criterion for a class problem. The fact that it is a problem for some students, however, might be a lead to the problem "How can I become an intelligent buyer?" or "How can I spend my money more wisely?" which certainly would meet the criterion of commonality and recurrence.

2. *Is the problem significant enough to warrant class consideration?* From the wealth of material included in the social studies only those problems should be considered which are most significant in meeting the personal and social needs of the students within a particular group. Those problems are most important which facilitate the development of an understanding of issues of major concern to the largest number of people and the development of a value pattern consistent with democratic principles. In a culture where scientific knowledge has brought about changes faster than society has been able to adjust to them, problems of great significance have been created. Furthermore, in a democracy all individuals have a responsibility, to the extent of their knowledge and ability, to contribute to the solution of common problems. Problems significant enough to warrant consideration should provide opportunities for young people to acquire both an appreciation of our democratic traditions and the ability to participate in activities directed toward a fuller realization of democratic values in the present and future. Such problems as "How can lasting peace be attained?"

"How can equal educational opportunities for all American children be secured?" "How can the recreational facilities of the community be improved?" are problems which satisfactorily meet this criterion.

3. *Will study of the problem contribute to the changes in behavior selected by the class as their educational objectives?* Competence in using social-studies materials, in thinking critically, in working independently, and in expressing oneself fluently and effectively, as well as the development of concepts, understandings, and desirable social attitudes, is best achieved as the experiences in one unit build upon those acquired in the study of preceding units. Some units make more contribution to the development of certain behavior characteristics than others. If the curriculum is to meet the needs of students, therefore, problems should be selected which are best suited to developing those behavior characteristics considered most important for individual and group well-being. Suppose, for example, that the teacher and students have set up as a desirable behavior "to respect other races, classes, religions, cultures, and nations" and, by use of an attitude test or a scale-of-beliefs test, it is shown that the group as a whole respect Negroes, Orientals, and foreign groups of various kinds but are very intolerant in their attitude toward labor or business. According to this criterion, it would be better for the group to study a problem related to labor, social security, or business than a problem dealing with Oriental culture or the Negro. The importance of objectives in planning not only the problems to be studied but also the activities and experiences to be undertaken in studying the problem, emphasizes the necessity of stating objectives in terms of the specific behavioral changes desired in boys and girls so that students and teachers will be continually aware of the purpose of all that they do. If the objectives are set up by the class at the beginning of the term, they furnish a check for determining both the problems and the classroom experiences. The list of objectives should not remain static, as some behavior characteristics need particular emphasis, new ones need to be added, and others no longer need to be stressed.

4. *Is the problem suited to the maturity of the group?* Often this is not so much a matter of selection of the problem as it is of the treatment of the problem and the materials used in studying it. In fact, the same problem may be studied profitably by the same group of students at different grade levels. The problem of maturation is a particularly difficult one because students in the same grade are not at the same level of maturity and it is difficult to generalize about what is best suited to a seventh-grade group or an eighth-grade group. However, the nature of some problems indicates where they should be taught. Those which are more personal in emphasis are generally better suited to early

adolescence than are more complex social problems, since during early adolescence interests tend to be manipulative, immediate, and short-ranged, and identification with large social groups is difficult. Older adolescents, in their desire to go beyond their home and immediate social group for their ideas and values, are eager to study and discuss current social, political, and economic problems.[30]

5. *Is the problem one for which adequate and suitable materials are available?* Many of the difficulties which teachers encounter are due to permitting the class to tackle problems for which there are not adequate library or community resources. This leads to superficial teaching and to empty verbalizations. It prevents critical thinking based on sound research and dependable knowledge. Before permitting a problem to be selected for class discussion, a teacher should survey the resources of the school and community and should make sure that adequate materials will be available to the students.

However, it should be emphasized that teachers are sometimes unaware of the resources at their command in the community and in their own libraries. More than a cursory search for materials should be made before a problem is eliminated. Books can often be borrowed from other departments in the school; free materials can be obtained from the federal government and from local and state governments; and local organizations are often a veritable gold mine as far as materials are concerned. Students can help in the location of necessary materials and often become regular detectives at running down interesting materials.

6. *Does the problem provide for a continuity of educational experiences?* As a unit of work or a problem is being developed, many suggestions for new problems will emerge. An alert teacher will capitalize on those which she thinks are most significant, arousing interest in them by a skillfully directed question or by a suggestion concerning their importance for the students' personal development and for better social understanding. Such a teacher would never have to ask her class "What do you want to study next?" The choice of the next problem would be determined by what had preceded it and would grow directly out of previous experience. A pressing problem for tenth-graders entering a new school is "How can I get the most out of my high-school experience?" The selection of this or a similar problem is predetermined by the situation in which the tenth-grader finds himself on the first day in a new school, with the immediate problems of getting around the building, meeting new teachers, enrolling in new classes, getting into new activities, seeking new friends, and learning how to study in a new situation. As these problems are solved, leads for new

units are noted. For instance, in studying the government of the school and in organizing class activities the question of democracy would undoubtedly be raised. What is democracy? What is liberty? Why do we have government and laws? Is a democratic form of government better than an autocratic government? Here would be a definite lead for a unit on democracy or civil liberties. In considering the subproblem "How can I make new friends in high school?" personal appearance would probably come in for much discussion. This might lead to the problem "How can I improve my appearance?" with all its health implications; or, as a result of a discussion of cosmetics and clothes, it might lead to "How can we become intelligent consumers?" The personal problem of the tenth-grade student in adjusting to a new school situation thus leads naturally to a whole series of problems with broad social implications as well as direct personal emphasis. The problem for the class to decide is not "What do we want to study next?" but "Which of these two or three problems which have grown naturally out of our first problem is it most important for us to study next in light of our needs and interest?" The teacher, seeing that the choice will be limited to this small group of problems, can do the necessary preplanning so that materials will be available and can lead in planning for the study of the new problem once it is selected.

A problem on "How can we prevent crime?" might lead to such problems as "How can we provide adequate housing for all people?" "How can we eliminate corruption in our government?" "How can we improve our schools to meet the needs of all students?" "How can poverty be avoided?" This limits the amount of choice which students have, but the limiting is necessary if educational experiences are to have any continuity and not be just a hodgepodge of unrelated units. It is important, too, that each succeeding unit be related to the previous one, not only in content but in organization, level of difficulty, selection of activities, and emphasis.

Some schools have solved the problem of continuity by relating all the activities at a particular grade level to one large major problem which becomes more or less the overarching theme for that year's work. "How can we strengthen the United States from within so that democracy will not be undermined?" and "How can international peace and prosperity be established?" are problems of this type. Such large problems, when analyzed into subproblems, provide more problems than any one group can handle in a year's time. The class thus has the responsibility of selecting those which are most pertinent and significant and which best meet their needs and interests.

It is only when a teacher is meeting a class for the first time that the

question of what problems to study may be difficult. If the class is entering a new school, this is not generally true. However, it might be true if the teacher were working within a defined sequence and if no orientation unit were included in the program. At other than entering grade levels it is likely to be more difficult to start the year's work unless the teacher has had the group the year before or unless the group decided on the problem before summer vacation. In many schools, class groups do not continue together from one year to the next and the teacher is faced on the first day of the new term with a group of students who do not know one another and who have had different teachers the previous year as well as different educational experience.

How, then, can a teacher present possibilities for problems without imposing content on an authoritarian basis? Let us assume for the moment that a teacher is beginning a new year with a class in contemporary problems on the twelfth-grade level in a large high school in a metropolitan community. The first responsibility of the teacher is to gather as much information as possible about the members of the class with respect to their previous school work, their intelligence quotients and mental age, their information about United States and world history and general contemporary affairs, their interests, their attitudes, their reading ability, their home backgrounds, and their personal and social adjustment. The study of this information should furnish many clues as to possibilities for problems to be explored. Unfortunately, however, very few schools furnish all these types of information to teachers. Although instruments exist to furnish evidence on practically all these points, the school budget may not permit their purchase. To obtain the information outlined above, it would be necessary to give an intelligence test, an American history and current-events test, an attitude test, an interest index, a personality-adjustment inventory, and a reading test. The first thing for a teacher to do is to secure from the guidance office all available data on the students in his classes. Beyond this point, much depends on his ingenuity and resourcefulness. Commercial tests can be selected and purchased which will give most of the data needed. With the expenditure of time and effort, a teacher can devise his own informal paper-and-pencil tests covering important elements in United States history and contemporary affairs. The possibilities of teachers gathering this information, however, are severely conditioned by their load of duties. Teachers who have heavy class loads usually find it difficult to make this important preliminary analysis with each class.

Another important thing for the teacher to know is the list of social-studies units previously studied by members of the class while in the

secondary school. This study can furnish clues and leads and is necessary to prevent duplication and overlapping effort. One of the arguments advanced by those who advocate an inflexible sequence is that there is too much repetition of units without a prescribed plan. This can be avoided to a large extent if the interests of students are followed and if the teacher is aware of the previous educational experiences of the group. The analysis of previous units, then, should accomplish three things: (1) it should reveal gaps in the students' background of experience; (2) it should furnish leads and clues for future units; (3) it should guard against unnecessary and unwise duplication of units studied in previous years.

The information on the intelligence and reading ability of the class will indicate something of the range of complexity and the scope of the problems which may be undertaken. The class may not be uniform in these characteristics, but it may lean in one direction or another. Even if a class is quite heterogeneous, the information about intelligence and reading ability can be used effectively in guiding boys and girls into activities and projects suitable to their levels of ability.

The background of information in history and in contemporary affairs will further indicate some of the conditioning factors in the choice of units. Some classes may be almost totally ignorant in these areas, while others may be mature and well-informed. The suggested problem which would be suitable for the well-informed class may be far beyond the immediate comprehension of the other, while a simple problem suitable for the less able group may be boring and of little educative value to the better informed and more intelligent group.

Information about the interests and attitudes of the group is similarly useful to the teacher in deciding what to suggest to a group of new students. Some classes may be greatly interested in social studies, while others may not be interested in them. One group may be characterized by broad, liberal social attitudes, while another may be conservative in its viewpoint. An interest index will often reveal interest in an area or problem suitable for exploration and study by the class.

A teacher using such criteria as those suggested above will avoid many of the pitfalls teachers have encountered in their use of the problems approach. A group of Salt Lake City students selected the following problems to study in their senior problems course:

1. How can we know what to believe?
2. What should the United States do about the international situation?
3. How can we best secure our democracy within our country?
4. How can I best insure my vocational success?
5. How can I improve my personality to gain the most happiness?

A group of eleventh-grade students in the high school at Eugene, Oregon, organized their study of American civilization around the following problems:

1. How can we improve and preserve American democracy so that it will withstand the attacks of fascism and communism?
2. How can the Americanization of the foreign element in our population be accomplished?
3. How can we provide adequate leisure and recreation for all?
4. How can we conserve the resources and develop the industries of the Pacific Northwest region?
5. How, in earlier times, has our nation provided for defense against foreign enemies and how can we now provide for national defense?

The resource units developed by the American history teachers of the Long Beach Public Schools suggest that the problems approach rather than the topical approach be used.[37] Although the teachers recognized that the ability to state and define the problem is the first important step in problem-solving and that it is important that the students in each class define the problem so that it is meaningful to them, each resource unit carries four or five suggestions as to how the "overall" problem of the unit might be stated.

1. Resource Unit: The People of the United States[38]
   a) How can the United States best utilize the contributions made by the various racial and national groups to American life?
   b) How can we bring unity among the various elements in American life and still provide for cultural diversity?
   c) How shall minority groups within the United States be treated and their contributions utilized?
   d) How can conflicts between major and minor groups be resolved?
2. Resource Unit: Development of Political Democracy and Nationalism in the United States
   a) How can democracy in the United States be preserved and strengthened?
   b) How can we use our democratic heritage for furthering the general welfare?
   c) How can we safeguard our civil liberties during the war?
   d) How can loyalty toward our democratic principles be strengthened?
   e) How can we provide educational opportunities for all American children?
3. Resource Unit: Economic Development of the United States
   a) How far should the government go in the protection and regulation of the interests of industry and labor?
   b) How can our economic organization be made more democratic?
   c) How can economic planning be developed in order to prevent future depressions?

d) What shall we do about solving the agriculture problem?

e) What rôle should the United States play in the world economic order following World War II?

4. Resource Unit: The United States—A World Power

   a) What should be the rôle of the United States in international affairs?

   b) How can the United States use her vast power and resources to bring about a better world order?

   c) How can we prevent war in the future and establish a peace which will be just for all nations?

   d) What responsibility does the United States have to see that international order is established and maintained?

5. Resource Unit: Social Development of the United States

   a) How can we improve American life socially and culturally?

   b) How can we as Americans find the values of life which are most satisfying?

   c) How can we better utilize the creativeness of the American people?

   d) How can we develop social democracy?

   e) How can we use scientific medical knowledge for the betterment of all?

6. Resource Unit: Government Services

   a) How can we improve and strengthen our democratic government?

   b) How can our government help all individuals to reach the fullest self-expression?

   c) How can we build a government in our schools which will best serve the students?

   d) How can we make all phases of our government equally democratic?

   e) How can our elections be conducted in a more democratic manner?

   f) How can we preserve our democracy against weaknesses from within the nation?

   g) How can we interpret the ideals of a people by the form of government they have chosen?

The curriculum committees of the Pasadena Junior High Schools provided in their curriculum monographs for the use of the problems approach with junior high school classes. The seventh-grade general-education core program, built around the theme "How can we more intelligently use our physical environment?" included the following problems units:

1. How can we more intelligently use our school environment?

2. How can we more intelligently use food?

3. How can we more intelligently use our water supply?

4. How can we more intelligently use our textiles?

5. How can we more intelligently use our building materials?

Likewise, the eighth-grade theme, "How can we more intelligently use the contributions of our American heritage?", the ninth-grade prob-

lem, "How can we improve our social-civics relationships?", and the "overall" problem for the tenth grade, "How can we understand and what should our relationship be toward current problems?" made use of the problems approach.[39]

Advantages and disadvantages of the problems approach.—The advocates of the problems approach claim that the particular merits of this approach are:

1. It furnishes a natural objective—the solution of a problem. The students see purpose in their activities and the necessity of reaching a decision; thus interest is heightened and intrinsic motivation provided.
2. It is based upon the process of reflective thinking and requires the utilization of facts learned, skills attained, and values acquired to make adjustment to life situations.
3. It is functional in that it is built upon the needs and interests of students and is designed to help them adjust to life situations.
4. It emphasizes contemporary problems which have not been solved.
5. It permits pupils to share in determining what problems will be studied and the activities and procedures to be used in studying them.
6. It encourages students to do further research and to develop better work habits and study skills because it is challenging to them and presents issues about which they have a real interest.
7. It requires the drawing of generalizations or conclusions and calls for action in terms of the conclusions reached.
8. It provides more opportunity for the utilization of community resources and nontextbook materials than does either the chronological or the topical approach because it focuses on contemporary problems.[40]

Among the objections that have been raised against the problems approach are:

1. Youth in school can do little or nothing about adult problems.
2. Young people are too immature to attempt to solve problems.
3. The study of complex problems in school is likely to be superficial.
4. In considering controversial issues, the bias of the teacher may be pressed upon the student.
5. The study of contemporary problems builds dissatisfaction in youth.
6. Problems studied by students in school may no longer be problems by the time those students become adults.
7. Young people do not secure a sound foundation of knowledge, especially of history, when the problems approach is used.

Some of the objections leveled against the problems approach, as against the chronological and topical approaches, are due to a lack of adequate teacher preparation and maturity; others apply only when the problems approach is used exclusively; and still others are not well-founded. The objection that students can do little or nothing

about adult problems is only partially true, as has been indicated above. The lack of maturity of high-school students is often exaggerated, and, in any case, it is important for young people to get experience in the scientific method and the problem-solving process if they are to participate effectively in the solution of social problems as adults. The ability to think reflectively does not suddenly emerge when an individual reaches a certain age. Involved in the thinking process is the ability to apply past experiences to new situations and to select alternatives on the basis of an anticipation of consequences. This ability itself develops out of experience. If the social effectiveness of the American people is to be improved, the youth of America need to begin early to have experiences with vital problems. Not so long ago the opportunities for such experiences were abundantly present in the home and community; today such opportunities, to a large extent, have to be created as a part of public education.[41]

Children in kindergarten can consider problems that confront them in their immediate environment: How can they get along better with playmates? How can they cross streets safely on the way to school? How can they help in improving the appearance of their rooms at home? Then as they increase in maturity, because of increased insight and social sensitivity, the problems studied can become more complex until by the end of high school they are ready for the study of such questions as: How can we prevent war? How can we improve traffic safety in our community? How can we secure better housing for the American people? Certainly senior high school students are sufficiently mature to study such problems as these. They average about eighteen years of age at graduation. This is the age when young men all over the world are drafted to fight and die. Some of our youth are already married at eighteen, and all of them are facing the possibility of family life in the near future. In Georgia at eighteen and in all states at twenty-one, young people have the opportunity and responsibility of expressing their conclusions on vital issues at the ballot box. Horn believes that "it is doubtful whether the average adult who has been out of school five or more years can deal" with complex social problems "much more adequately than high-school students working under the guidance of a competent teacher, with ample library facilities, in an atmosphere of tolerant criticism, and at the end of a carefully planned sequence of courses."[42] The studies made by the American Youth Commission and by the Regents' Inquiry into the character and cost of public education in the state of New York showed a lack of concern about social problems on the part of out-of-school youth.[43] More experiences by students in school with the problem-solving tech-

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nique and with issues paramount in our culture should result in a greater awareness of social problems, a deeper interest in them, a stronger feeling of responsibility for participating in their solution, and greater competence in the abilities needed in problem-solving.

Summary

All three approaches to social education thus have unique advantages. The teachers in the Stanford Social Education Investigation came to the conclusion that no one approach should be used to the exclusion of the other two. The approaches used should be determined by the educational philosophy of the school, the objectives which the teacher and students hope to achieve, the nature of the content, and the training and competence of the teacher. Furthermore, it is obvious that the chronological, topical, and problems approaches are not mutually exclusive. For example, each social problem has its roots in the past, and its antecedents need to be understood before proposed solutions can be considered intelligently. Thus, with the study of most problems, historical background will need to be considered. Topical units which trace a movement or issue from its origin to the present, or vice versa, also provide for a chronological treatment within the unit. Likewise, the chronological approach, with units based on a culture, an epoch, or a movement, may be composed of topical units, as, for example, "The Life of Ancient Greece" or "Life on the Frontier."

It is important that students get historical perspective and see the problems and causes of contemporary life in relation to their historical background. It is also important that students at each grade level be given the opportunity to have experiences which will help them develop skill in all the basic behaviors of problem-solving or clear thinking. For that reason, it seems necessary that the problems approach be used to some extent at each grade level, while the type of problem studied and the techniques used should be adapted to the ability and maturity of the students.

The decision as to what approaches are to be used in organizing materials and learning experiences rests with teachers and curriculum committees. In making their decision, teachers might well ask themselves the following questions and choose the approaches which most satisfactorily meet these criteria:

1. Do they require the utilization of many kinds of materials and a variety of experiences?
2. Do they permit much pupil-teacher planning in selecting the units to be studied, the procedure to be used, and the learning activities to be undertaken?

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3. Do they provide opportunity for an extensive use of the processes of reflective thinking?
4. Do they encourage pupils to work independently or in groups in collecting, organizing, interpreting, and presenting data?
5. Do they result in the drawing of generalizations and in action in terms of those generalizations?
6. Do they encourage initiative, self-direction, and responsibility on the part of the students?
7. Do they permit sufficient flexibility to meet the needs and interests of students?
8. Do they help students to gain the necessary historical perspective to understand and appreciate the world in which they live and to participate in the solution of contemporary social problems?
9. Do they develop social sensitivity and persistent interests in the social field which will continue and broaden throughout the life of the individual?
10. Do they facilitate change in the behavioral pattern of youth in those objectives which teachers and pupils hold to be desirable; for example, reflective thinking, work habits and study skills, knowledge and social understanding, social attitudes, interests, and appreciations?[44]

6

THE PROBLEMS APPROACH:
A STUDY OF ITS COMPARATIVE VALUE

Much armchair theorizing has been done on the relative merits of the chronological, the topical, and the problems approaches. Exaggerated claims have been made by the proponents of all three approaches, with little or no scientific evidence given to substantiate their points of view. Consequently, teachers have been confused concerning the merits of the approaches used in social-studies instruction and have had no research evidence to guide them. The participants of the Stanford Social Education Investigation believed, therefore, that it was important to set up a research study in which the merits of the three approaches could be tested so that inferences might be drawn from the data which would have value for curriculum organization and classroom procedure. Thus, during the second workshop, in 1940, plans were made for carrying on a research study during the following school year.

Procedure Used in Conducting the Study

Behaviors Evaluated

The participating teachers agreed that the superiority of one approach over the others should be judged primarily on its effectiveness in helping boys and girls grow in the behaviors considered desirable by social-studies teachers, regardless of the approach used. They agreed that the following objectives are the behaviors necessary for effective participation in a democratic society.

A. Development of the ability to think critically. A person who has this ability:
   1. Interprets data accurately
   2. Uses logical arguments
   3. Recognizes fallacies and sophistries in the arguments of others
   4. Draws sound generalizations
   5. Applies accepted principles to new situations

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B. Development of good work habits and study skills. One who has good work habits and study skills:
   1. Uses library facilities easily and intelligently
   2. Uses books efficiently
   3. Judges sources of his information as to their authenticity
   4. Reads magazines and newspapers with discrimination and intelligence
   5. Makes use of all the resources at his command which will give him reliable information
C. Acquisition of a knowledge and understanding of our culture. One with this understanding:
   1. Possesses and uses an adequate vocabulary
   2. Possesses a clear understanding of important geographical, personal, and abstract concepts
   3. Sees a social problem in perspective—its historical genesis and the consequences of a particular solution
   4. Uses the accumulated knowledge of the race as well as current thought and practice in reaching conclusions
   5. Sees relationships between a problem and its social implications
   6. Strives continually to increase his understanding of our culture and the forces and conditions which have produced it
D. Development of desirable social attitudes. A person with desirable social attitudes:
   1. Is tolerant of the opinions and beliefs of others
   2. Coöperates with others in the group
   3. Is concerned about the welfare of others
   4. Defends the basic tenets of democracy against any curtailment
   5. Is self-disciplined
E. Development of a broad pattern of interests and appreciation for the worth-while things in life. A person with such a pattern of interests:
   1. Reads widely for both pleasure and information
   2. Discusses and participates in the solution of current social, political, and economic problems
   3. Enjoys activities with other people—parties, dances, informal discussions, committee work, games, etc.
   4. Follows a vocation for which he is suited and in which he can be successful
   5. Spends his leisure time wisely

Selection of Groups

In selecting the groups for the study it seemed necessary to choose schools and communities which were similar; teachers who were comparable in experience, training, teaching load, and success; and students who were equal in intelligence, reading ability, socio-economic background, age, grade level, and amount of social studies taken.

Since the study called for the giving of a series of pre-tests and end-tests at the beginning and close of the school year and demanded familiarity with the approaches to be used by those participating, it seemed necessary to limit it to eleventh- and twelfth-grade students because: (1) better techniques and instruments of evaluation have been developed on the senior than on the junior high school level; (2) more of the teachers participating in the Investigation at those grade levels were enthusiastic about the problems approach and were skilled in using it; and (3) the comprehensiveness of the evaluation program contemplated made it necessary to confine the study to one or, at the most, two grade levels.

Comparison of Schools

The data given in Table 12 show that all five of the schools used in the study are relatively large public schools. Each has a junior and a senior class even though they differ in plan of organization. Although the enrollment and number of teachers in School B are much larger than those of the other schools, these figures are spuriously high due to the fact that two campuses located in different sections of the city are considered as one school unit and are reported as such.

The student bodies in all the schools are similar in several respects. The students of each school are predominantly native-born and white so that each student body is quite homogeneous as to race and nationality. The high percentage of graduates from all five schools who go on to college is well above the national average of 24 per cent and would indicate that the students in these schools are superior in economic status and intellectual interests to high-school students in general. Also the fact that so many of the students in each of the schools are enrolled in the social studies gives some indication of the attitude held by the students and faculties of these schools concerning the importance of social education.

The variations in pupil-teacher ratio and in the cost of education per pupil are facts which must be taken into consideration. Undoubtedly teachers cannot be so effective if their teaching load is too heavy. The amount spent for education per student gives some index as to the materials and equipment available as well as to the adequacy of the salaries paid teachers and administrators. These are all factors affecting teaching. Since, however, in one case two or three teachers from the same school participated in this study, one using the problems approach and another using the topical or chronological approach, it is unlikely that this variation affected the results of the study in any measurable degree.

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TABLE 12*

COMPARISON OF THE FIVE SCHOOLS IN WHICH THE STUDY WAS CONDUCTED

Schools	Type of High School	Enrollment	Students Taking Social Studies	Percentage of Graduates to College	Composition of Student Body (Percentage)	Number of Teachers	Pupil-Teacher Ratio	Cost of Education per Pupil
A............	Public, 3-year	1129	1129	50+	Native white—100	33	34.2	$ 95.00
B............	Public junior college, 4-year	7257	4486	12-grade—70 14-grade—29	Native white—94 Oriental—2 Mexican—2 Negro—1.5	267	27.1	$192.97
C............	Public, 2-year	1836	1836	65	Native white—100	55	33.4	$113.41
D............	Public, 4-year	2053	1855	50+	Native white—80-85 Mexican—10-15 Negro—1 Oriental—4	85	24.6	$197.00
E............	Public, 4-year	2133	1636	36	Native white—100	79	27.0	$130.71

* Data taken from principals' reports to the Stanford Social Education Investigation for the school year 1940-41.

Comparison of Communities

With one exception, the schools which participated in the study are all in metropolitan areas. They are all located in residential districts, although one school draws from an industrial community as well. The economic level of the communities from which three of the schools draw their student body is, in the main, in the upper middle class or the well to do. The other two schools draw students from all economic levels, ranging, at the time of the study, from children whose families were on relief, to the sons and daughters of the very wealthy.

The cultural advantages enjoyed by the residents in these communities are above average. Three of the schools are located in the vicinity of the state university of their respective states, and a fourth is not far from a large privately endowed university. Many of the literary, artistic, and intellectual advantages and privileges which the universities offer their students are also enjoyed by the citizens of these communities. The fact that these four schools are located near universities may be one explanation for the large number of graduates who go on to college. Although the fifth school is not located near a large university, it is itself a junior college and is located in an exceptionally superior community, one which received the highest score of the 310 cities of 30,000 and over rated by Thorndike on his "goodness" scale.[1] Table 13 shows the type of community in which each of the five schools listed in Table 12 is located.

Comparison of Teachers

Participation in the study was on a voluntary basis. During the 1940 summer workshop of the Stanford Social Education Investigation, when the plans for the study were made, an invitation to participate was extended to teachers who were enthusiastic about the problems approach. From the group who volunteered, seven who were teaching junior and senior classes were selected. These were then paired with seven other teachers who were critical of the problems approach and who were using the chronological or the topical approach with considerable success and enthusiasm. They, too, were asked to participate. The teachers were selected so that those using the problems approach with junior students would be comparable to the teachers using the chronological approach in teaching load, academic and professional training, teaching experience, and teaching skill; and so that the teachers using the problems approach with senior students would likewise be comparable to those using the topical approach.

Later, four of the teachers were forced to withdraw because of conditions in their schools which were beyond their power to control. The data from a fifth teacher's classes are not reported here, since his classes were semester classes and the data therefore could not be compared with those from classes which were a year in length.[2] The data as reported here are based upon the work of four teachers using the problems, three teachers using the chronological, and two teachers using the topical approaches. Five of the teachers taught senior, and four taught junior classes. The teachers were all experienced and had had similar academic and professional training. Although the two teachers using the topical approach averaged 6.9 more years of experience than the paired teachers using the problems approach, it is questionable whether this is an advantage since the law of diminishing returns starts to operate after the fourth or fifth year of teaching. According to a study made by Young on the ratings given 1521 high-school teachers, experience up to five years is important in making one a more efficient teacher. After that, experience ceases to be a significant factor.[3] The units of teaching load, including both teaching and nonteaching activities, show the teachers of both the senior and the junior groups to be fairly well matched.[4]

TABLE 13

COMPARISON OF THE COMMUNITIES (1941)
IN WHICH THE PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS ARE LOCATED

Community	Size of City	Population in School Community	Type of Community	Economic Level of School Community
A.....	18,901	Native white	Residential, semirural	Upper middle class
B.....	76,086	Native white Small percentage Negroes, Orientals, Mexicans	Residential, suburban	Cross-section, relief to wealthy
C.....	140,267	Native white	Residential, urban	Well to do
D.....	8,962	Native white Some Mexicans, Orientals, and Negroes	Residential, suburban, and industrial	Cross-section, relief to wealthy
E.....	365,583	Native white	Residential, urban	Upper middle class

The behaviors or characteristics on which teaching skill was judged were those used in the Stanford Social Education Investigation to define good teaching.[5] It was felt that these behaviors are paramount in providing the necessary classroom atmosphere for student growth in the behaviors considered essential for mature democratic citizens. The ratings given each teacher were the composite ratings of the staff of the Stanford Social Education Investigation based on observations made during visits to the schools, conferences with the teachers, and intensive work done with the teachers during the school year. On these composite ratings the teachers handling the junior classes using the problems and chronological approaches were highly comparable, as were the teachers of the senior groups using the problems and topical approaches. All the teachers participating in the study improved in the characteristics of good teaching on which they were judged, and, according to staff judgment, those teaching the senior groups were highly satisfactory at the end of the study in all behaviors, while the teachers of the junior groups were satisfactory in most of the behaviors.

Comparison of Student Groups

Although 1106 students took the tests at the beginning of the study, only 660 took the tests at the end of the year. Shift in student enrollment, drop-outs, and transfers accounted for part of this loss, but most of the curtailment in numbers was deliberate, since the size of the testing program and the cost of scoring made it desirable to work with fewer students if such curtailment would not lessen the reliability of the data. It was also necessary to include only those students who had taken all the tests administered to their group if the same group was to be used in studying the changes in behavior which took place in each of the objectives. Of the 660 who were still enrolled in the group at the end of the year, 128 had missed one or more of the tests. These were eliminated, reducing the group to 532 students. The groups were then paired so that the senior group using the problems approach was comparable to the senior group using the topical approach and the junior group using the problems approach was comparable to the junior group using the chronological approach in intelligence, reading ability, chronological age, sex, and socio-economic background. This reduced the number of students used in the study to 465. Since no attempt was made to pair individuals, there was no need to make the groups equal in size.

The problem of equating the groups was complicated by the fact that some of the teachers had given only part of the testing program. If their students were to be included in the study at all, it seemed

necessary to make the group which had taken all the tests comparable
in intelligence, reading ability, chronological age, sex, and socio-eco-
nomic background to the group which had been given only part of
the tests. Of the senior groups, two of the teachers using the problems
approach had given all the tests, while one had given only a limited
number. One of the groups using the topical approach had taken all
the tests, while the other had not. That it was possible to select stu-
dents from the groups using the problems approach so that the larger
group of 182 students would be comparable to the smaller group of
146 students is shown in Table 14. Since the two groups were so
comparable, they were used interchangeably throughout the study, and
comparisons were drawn as if they were one and the same group. Like-
wise the groups using the topical and chronological approaches were
equated so that they could be used in the same way. Table 15 gives a
statistical analysis of the senior group using the topical approach when
it included 88 and 68 students; and Table 16 gives the analysis of the
chronological group, composed of 129 and 51 students. While these
groups were not so similar as the groups using the problems approach,
the difference is not statistically significant in any instance.

The groups were paired on the basis of their performance on the
Otis Self-Administering Test, Higher Form; the *Iowa Silent Reading
Test;* and the *Social Background Data Sheet* developed by Wright-
stone.[6] In Table 17 (A and B) the two senior groups used in the
study are compared as to intelligence, reading ability, socio-economic
status, chronological age, and sex. In Table A, the smaller groups

TABLE 14
COMPARISON OF THE SENIOR GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS APPROACH

GROUPS	No.	Mean	Standard Deviation	Differ- ence in Mean	Standard Error of Difference	Criti- cal Ratio
Intelligence (IQ)						
Students of 2 teachers..	146	112.47	10.22	.19	. . . .	. . . .
Students of 3 teachers..	182	112.28	10.52			
Reading Ability						
Students of 2 teachers..	146	67.77	20.72	3.21	2.30	1.39
Students of 3 teachers..	182	64.56	20.76			
Socio-economic Status						
Students of 2 teachers..	146	61.54	18.07	.96	. . . .	. . . .
Students of 3 teachers..	182	62.50	18.04			
Chronological Age						
Students of 2 teachers..	146	16–11.6	9.61	. . . .	. . . .	. . . .
Students of 3 teachers..	182	16–11.6	8.97			

TABLE 15
COMPARISON OF THE SENIOR GROUPS USING THE TOPICAL APPROACH

GROUPS	No.	Mean	Standard Deviation	Difference in Mean	Standard Error of Difference	Critical Ratio
Intelligence (IQ)						
Students of 1 teacher...	68	112.63	8.81	.1.46	1.43	1.02
Students of 2 teachers..	88	111.17	8.88			
Reading Ability						
Students of 1 teacher...	68	68.89	21.72	5.48	3.62	1.52
Students of 2 teachers..	88	63.41	23.26			
Socio-economic Status						
Students of 1 teacher...	68	62.28	18.26	1.03	2.99	0.34
Students of 2 teachers..	88	61.25	18.91			
Chronological Age						
Students of 1 teacher...	68	16–5.73	6.14	2.18	1.11	1.97
Students of 2 teachers..	88	16–7.91	7.72			

TABLE 16
COMPARISON OF THE JUNIOR GROUPS USING THE CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACH

GROUPS	No.	Mean	Standard Deviation	Difference in Mean	Standard Error of Difference	Critical Ratio
Intelligence (IQ)						
Students of 1 teacher...	51	111.05	8.63	.10	....	....
Students of 3 teachers..	129	110.95	8.97			
Reading Ability						
Students of 1 teacher...	51	65.38	21.86	3.76	3.62	1.04
Students of 3 teachers..	129	61.62	22.01			
Socio-economic Status						
Students of 1 teacher...	51	58.18	16.46	1.34	2.76	.49
Students of 3 teachers..	129	56.84	17.16			
Chronological Age						
Students of 1 teacher...	51	15– 8.94	6.97	2.94	1.20	2.44
Students of 3 teachers..	129	15–11.88	8.01			

which took all the tests are compared; in Table B, the groups include the students from the classes which took only part of the tests. The groups are highly comparable in intelligence, reading ability, and socio-economic status. When the paired groups include only those who took all the tests, the students in the group using the problems approach are, however, nearly six months older than the students using the topical approach. This difference is reduced by more than two months when the other classes are added. It was practically im-

TABLE 17-A

COMPARISON OF THE INTELLIGENCE, READING ABILITY, SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS, SEX, AND CHRONOLOGICAL AGE OF THE SENIOR GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS AND TOPICAL APPROACHES IN SOCIAL EDUCATION

GROUPS	No.	SEX		MEAN	STANDARD DEVIA-TION	DIFFER-ENCE IN MEAN	STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFER-ENCE	CRITICAL RATIO
		Boys	Girls					
Intelligence Quotient								
Problem-solving...	146	60	86	112.47	10.22	.16	....	....
Topical..........	68	20	48	112.63	8.81			
Reading Ability								
Problem-solving	146	60	86	67.77	20.72	1.12	3.14	.35
Topical..........	68	20	48	68.89	21.72			
Socio-economic Status								
Problem-solving...	146	60	86	61.54	18.07	.74	....	....
Topical..........	68	20	48	62.28	18.26			
Chronological Age								
Problem-solving...	146	60	86	16–11.6	9.61	5.87	1.09	5.39
Topical..........	68	20	48	16–5.73	6.14			

TABLE 17-B

GROUPS	No.	SEX		MEAN	STANDARD DEVIA-TION	DIFFER-ENCE IN MEAN	STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFER-ENCE	CRITICAL RATIO
		Boys	Girls					
Intelligence Quotient								
Problem-solving...	182	75	107	112.28	10.52	1.11	1.23	.90
Topical..........	88	31	57	111.17	8.88			
Reading Ability								
Problem-solving...	182	75	107	64.56	20.76	1.15	2.92	.39
Topical..........	88	31	57	63.41	23.26			
Socio-economic Status								
Problem-solving...	182	75	107	62.50	18.04	1.25	2.42	.52
Topical..........	88	31	57	61.25	18.91			
Chronological Age								
Problem-solving...	182	75	107	16–11.6	8.98	3.69	1.06	3.48
Topical..........	88	31	57	16– 7.9	7.72			

possible to make the groups as comparable in this characteristic as in the others without throwing away a large percentage of the cases, since the students in one of the participating schools enter high school a year younger than students in most public schools and therefore graduate a year younger. The total school program in this city is an eleven-year program rather than the customary twelve-year. Both groups include more girls than boys, the percentage being higher in the groups using the topical approach than in the problems-approach groups.

Table 18 (A and B) summarizes the data on the junior groups used
in the study. These groups are quite comparable in intelligence and
reading ability, less so in socio-economic status and chronological age.
As in the case of the senior groups, the problems-approach group is
the older. The difference of five and a half months between the students
in the smaller groups is decreased when more students are added to
the groups. When the total groups are compared, the difference is
only 2.6 months. This seems unavoidable, as explained above, because

TABLE 18-A

COMPARISON OF THE INTELLIGENCE, READING ABILITY, SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS,
SEX, AND CHRONOLOGICAL AGE OF THE JUNIOR GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS
APPROACH AND THE CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACH IN THE STUDY OF AMERICAN HISTORY

GROUPS	No.	SEX		MEAN	STANDARD DEVIA-TION	DIFFER-ENCE IN MEAN	STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFER-ENCE	CRITICAL RATIO
		Boys	Girls					
Intelligence (IQ)								
Problem-solving...	66	33	33	110.81	9.14	.24	....	....
Chronological.....	51	25	26	111.05	8.63			
Reading Ability								
Problem-solving...	66	33	33	67.65	21.34	2.27	4.03	.56
Chronological.....	51	25	26	65.38	21.86			
Socio-economic Status								
Problem-solving...	66	33	33	52.80	15.66	5.38	3.00	1.79
Chronological.....	51	25	26	58.18	16.46			
Chronological Age								
Problem-solving...	66	33	33	16-2.5	6.71	5.56	1.28	4.34
Chronological.....	51	25	26	15-8.94	6.97			

TABLE 18-B

GROUPS	No.	SEX		MEAN	STANDARD DEVIA-TION	DIFFER-ENCE IN MEAN	STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFER-ENCE	CRITICAL RATIO
		Boys	Girls					
Intelligence (IQ)								
Problem-solving...	66	33	33	110.81	9.14	.14	....	....
Chronological.....	129	57	72	110.95	8.97			
Reading Ability								
Problem-solving...	66	33	33	67.65	21.34	6.03	3.26	1.85
Chronological.....	129	57	72	61.62	22.01			
Socio-economic Status								
Problem-solving...	66	33	33	52.80	15.66	4.04	2.45	1.65
Chronological.....	129	57	72	56.84	17.16			
Chronological Age								
Problem-solving...	66	33	33	16- 2.5	6.71	2.60	1.09	.2.40
Chronological.....	129	57	72	15-11.88	8.01			

of the school-leaving age of the students in one of the schools used in the study.

Thus, of the 465 students who participated in the study, 270 were seniors and 195 were juniors. The senior groups using the topical and problems approaches were highly comparable in intelligence, reading ability, and socio-economic status, less so as to chronological age and sex. The junior groups using the chronological and problems approaches were better matched than the seniors in age and sex and compared satisfactorily as to intelligence, reading ability, and socio-economic background. Since no group using the topical approach was matched with a group using the chronological approach, conclusions as to the relative merit of these two approaches cannot be drawn.

Evaluation Instruments Used

During the study, data were gathered on the progress made by the students of each group during one school year in the behaviors involved in critical thinking, work habits and study skills, a knowledge and understanding of the culture, social attitudes, and interests.

Critical thinking.—In order to learn whether students comparable in intelligence, age, reading ability, and socio-economic background made more progress in their ability to think critically when they studied American history chronologically than when they studied contemporary problems in American life, or whether students who studied topics of interest to them were better able to think critically than those who studied problems, three evaluation instruments were used:

1. *Interpretation of Data Test* (Forms 2.51 and 2.52)[7]
2. *Social Problems Test* (Forms 1.41 and 1.42)
3. *Nature of Proof Test* (Forms 5.21 and 5.22)

These were all tests developed by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association as part of the evaluation program for the Commission on the Relation of School and College. Forms 2.51, 1.41, and 5.21 were given as part of the fall testing program; forms 2.52, 1.42, and 5.22 were administered in the spring as near the end of the school year as possible. Unfortunately, the two forms of the *Nature of Proof Test* are not comparable. The directions given in Form 5.21 are so complicated that they confuse students and invalidate the test scores. The directions were simplified in 5.22, the test was shortened, and the purpose of the test more clearly defined. The change in the method of scoring the test made it impossible to compare statistically the scores made on 5.21 with those made on 5.22. Consequently, in treating this test, the scores of the

paired groups were compared at the beginning and again at the end of the study rather than comparing the scores made by the same group on the pre-tests and end-tests.

Work habits and study skills.—Likewise, three different instruments were used to appraise the relative merits of the three approaches to social-studies instruction in facilitating progress in good work habits and study skills:

1. *Library and Sources of Information Test,* Forms A and B
2. *Questionnaire on Newspaper Reading*
3. *Check List of One Hundred Magazines*

The first of these was developed especially for this study. It consists of six parts and measures the ability of students to use a book, the index to a book, the card catalogue, the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature,* and standard reference materials and to judge the reliability of sources of information. Form A was given as part of the fall testing program and Form B at the close of school. The newspaper and magazine questionnaires used were those developed for the Eight-Year Study. The newspaper questionnaire was filled out only once during the year. It was marked by the senior groups at the end of the year and by the junior groups at the end of the first semester. The magazine questionnaire was marked at the beginning of the year and again during the last month of school. Since the teachers did not check the questionnaires so carefully as they did the tests, only 109 of the 182 seniors in the problems-approach group and 79 of the 88 seniors in the topical-approach group filled it out both times. None of the juniors in the problems-approach group reported on their magazine reading. This in itself may be evidence that the teachers did not consider magazine reading so important a behavior as some of the others which they were evaluating.

Knowledge and understanding.—The three tests used to evaluate the progress which students made in their knowledge and understanding of the culture in which they live and the forces which have produced that culture were:

1. *Cooperative American History Test,* Forms Q and R
2. *Cooperative Social Studies Achievement Test,* Form QR
3. *Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test for High School Students,* Forms 1940 and 1941

Although none of these tests covers all the behaviors which the teachers in the Stanford Social Education Investigation thought were implicit in "knowledge" or "understanding," they were the best tests which could be found. The *American History Test* was used with the two

junior groups which were studying American history by the chrono-logical or problems approach. Form Q was given as part of the fall testing program and Form R was the end-test. The *Social Studies Achievement Test* was used with the senior groups using the problems approach. Form QR was used both as the pre-test and as the end-test. Unfortunately, none of the senior groups using the topical approach was given this test. All four groups took the 1940 *Contemporary Affairs Test* as part of their fall testing program, and the 1941 edition of the same test was used at the close of the year's study.

Social attitudes.—Since the teachers in this study agreed that the development of desirable social attitudes was one of the most impor-tant of their objectives, the success of the approach used depended in part on the change in the social attitudes of the group which took place as a result of their experiences during the year. The two tests used to evaluate the attitudes held by the students and to appraise the change which took place were:

1. *Beliefs on Social Issues,* Forms 4.21 and 4.31
2. *Social Problems,* Forms 1.41 and 1.42

These were both tests developed by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. The same form of the test, *Beliefs on Social Issues,* was administered as the pre-test and end-test. The length of the test and the type of items included in it made it doubtful that students would profit by familiarity with the test or would remember how they had marked the items previously. The *Social Problems Test,* which was used to appraise critical thinking, was also used to evaluate change in value patterns.

Interests.—Interests manifest themselves in so many different ways that a number of evaluation instruments and techniques are necessary if they are to be appraised adequately. Activities carried on outside the school are often more significant than those engaged in within the classroom or during school hours. Books and magazines read either with or without credit, leisure-time reports, time charts, autobiogra-phies, themes, art projects, movies seen and radio programs heard, concerts and plays attended, work projects and activities engaged in— all give evidence of an individual's interest pattern. It was not feas-ible or possible to collect all this evidence in the present study, valuable as it would have been in obtaining a more complete picture of student interests. Six instruments, some of which were used in connection with other objectives, furnished the data used in comparing the effectiveness of the three approaches in developing "new and productive interests."

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1. *Interest Index*, 8.2a
2. *Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test,* Forms 1940 and 1941
3. *Movie Check List*
4. *Radio Check List*
5. *Check List of One Hundred Magazines*
6. *Questionnaire on Newspaper Reading*

The *Interest Questionnaire* is one of the tests developed by the Evaluation Staff for use in the Eight-Year Study. The same form was used for both the pre-test and the end-test. The *Movie Check List* of 164 movies was similar to one prepared by Edgar Dale for use in the Eight-Year Study, and the *Radio Check List* of 197 radio programs was modeled on one prepared by I. Keith Tyler and Luella Hoskins. The check lists were used only once and were checked near the beginning of the second semester. The other three instruments were the same as those used in connection with the other behaviors evaluated.

Difficulties Encountered in Administering the Tests

In a study as extensive as this one, when data are needed on many different behaviors and when teachers in different schools in widely scattered communities participate, it is impossible to control rigidly all the variables which might affect the results of the study. The fact that one examiner, for example, could not administer all the tests is a factor which may have affected the students' attitude toward the testing program and, consequently, their performance on the tests. An attempt was made to reduce this factor to a minimum by closely supervising the teachers who gave the tests and by suggesting techniques to use in winning the coöperation of the students. Careful instructions were sent to each teacher before the fall testing program and again before the administration of the tests in the spring. The tests were all taken on special answer sheets which were scored on an electric scoring machine by trained operators at Stanford University. As soon as a test was scored, the data were sent back to the teacher, together with an interpretation of the scores, pointing out the strengths and weaknesses of the group and of individuals within the group and suggesting techniques for working with students to improve their behavior. During the year that the study was in progress, members of the staff of the Stanford Social Education Investigation visited the various schools and worked with the participating teachers and with individual students, interpreting test scores and showing the relation of evaluation to objectives and classroom activities. The study thus fitted into and was a part of the total in-service education program of the Stanford Social Education Investigation.

Unlike the administration of most standardized achievement tests, timing was not an important feature in giving any of the tests used in the study. Dishonest marking of the papers was not a worry either—students had no motive for cheating since grades were not given and on many of the tests there was no one best answer. Students were allowed time to finish each test and were urged to do the best work of which they were capable. In spite of these precautions, some of the tests were given under conditions not conducive to the best effort of the students. Some teachers did not allow enough time at the close of school and so had to crowd the tests in during the last two weeks of the semester. In some schools, the irregular program of seniors played havoc with the time scheduled for the tests. With two of the groups, insufficient time was given at the end of the year for the complete battery of tests and the data for the groups were thus incomplete.

The handicaps encountered in administering the tests and collecting the data, however, were considered not great enough to invalidate any of the data with the exception of the scores on the *Library and Sources of Information Test* for the junior problems group. The conditions under which this test was given were so unsatisfactory that the scores could not be used.

Definition of Growth

Significant growth, as used in the results of this study, is defined as a gain in mean score on an end-test over the score made by the same group on a pre-test, which if divided by the standard error of that difference would yield a critical ratio of 3 or more. In order that conclusions might be drawn with a high degree of certainty, a critical ratio of 3 was used to define growth, since, when a critical ratio of 1 is obtained, the chances are only 68 in 100 that the difference is greater than 0; and when the ratio obtained is 2, the chances are only 95 out of 100. With a critical ratio of 3, however, it is practically certain that the difference is too great to be the result of chance. With the student and teacher variables held as constant as possible, the effectiveness of each approach in promoting growth could be studied and analyzed. The results are organized in terms of the five objectives considered to be of major importance by the teachers in the Stanford Social Education Investigation.

Presentation of the Data

Comparison of the Problems and Topical Approaches

On the basis of the evidence collected on the changes in behavior which took place during one school year in the students of two senior groups matched as to intelligence, socio-economic background, and

TABLE 19

COMPARISON OF THE GROWTH MADE BY THE STUDENTS IN THE GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS-, TOPICAL, AND CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACHES IN THEIR ABILITY TO READ AND INTERPRET DATA AS SHOWN BY THEIR SCORES ON THE INTERPRETATION OF DATA TEST, FORM 2.51, TAKEN AT THE BEGINNING OF THE YEAR, AND ON FORM 2.52, TAKEN AT THE END OF THE YEAR*

BEHAVIORS EVALUATED	TEST FORM	MEANS				STANDARD DEVIATIONS				DIFFERENCE IN MEANS				CRITICAL RATIO			
		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors	
		Prob-lems	Top-ical	Prob-lems	Chron-ological	Prob-lems	Top-ical	Prob-lems	Chron-ological	Prob-lems	Top-ical	Prob-lems	Chron-ological	Prob-lems	Top-ical	Prob-lems	Chron-ological
Number of Students		182	68	66	51	182	68	66	51	182	68	66	51	182	68	66	51
General Accuracy	2.51 2.52	46.62 51.18	43.75 46.32	43.56 44.92	37.79 42.02	9.64 10.23	12.29 11.15	10.61 11.05	10.72 11.12	4.56	2.57	1.36	4.23	6.96	2.76	1.29	2.85
Accuracy Probably true—Probably false	2.51 2.52	33.38 37.64	30.37 29.63	27.42 30.83	27.12 31.92	13.93 15.03	16.66 15.82	15.99 16.38	15.75 14.63	4.26	−.74	3.41	4.80	4.53	......	2.37	2.23
Accuracy Insufficient data	2.51 2.52	44.62 49.42	41.03 48.24	51.14 43.11	29.90 37.98	13.80 12.45	18.25 14.33	15.80 14.18	12.77 16.27	4.80	7.21	−8.03	8.08	4.23	4.03	4.10†	3.12
Accuracy True-false	2.51 2.52	58.85 62.06	56.18 49.71	52.88 56.29	56.06 52.79	13.06 15.74	13.00 16.01	15.11 17.88	16.88 15.45	3.21	−6.47	3.41	−3.27	3.08	4.29†	2.13	1.63†
Errors Too cautious	2.51 2.52	26.35 25.44	25.51 34.25	37.65 28.26	22.79 25.10	10.50 10.50	12.28 12.09	12.67 12.65	9.17 10.26	.91	−8.75	9.39	−2.31	......	7.17†	6.64	1.36†
Errors Beyond data	2.51 2.52	49.01 43.54	52.35 45.22	46.82 46.74	60.77 52.40	11.90 10.63	16.22 11.26	11.51 10.12	12.67 12.69	5.47	7.13	.08	8.37	5.73	4.54	......	3.99
Crude errors	2.51 2.52	15.77 13.57	17.50 16.03	16.36 15.61	18.17 17.88	5.49 6.08	6.43 5.76	6.75 6.57	5.96 7.77	2.20	1.47	.75	.29	4.68	2.63	......	......

* All scores are in percentage.   † Loss rather than gain.

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TABLE 20

COMPARISON OF THE GROWTH MADE BY THE GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS, TOPICAL, AND CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACHES IN THEIR ABILITY TO USE VALUE PRINCIPLES IN NEW SITUATIONS AS SHOWN BY THEIR SCORES ON THE SOCIAL PROBLEMS TEST, FORM 1.41, TAKEN AT THE BEGINNING OF THE SCHOOL YEAR, AND ON FORM 1.42, TAKEN AT THE END OF THE SCHOOL YEAR

Behaviors Evaluated	Test Form	Means				Standard Deviations				Difference in Means				Critical Ratio			
		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors	
		Prob-lems	Top-ical	Prob-lems	Chron-ological	Prob-lems	Top-ical	Prob-lems	Chron-ological	Prob-lems	Top-ical	Prob-lems	Chron-ological	Prob-lems	Top-ical	Prob-lems	Chron-ological
Number of Students		146	88	66	129	146	88	66	129	146	88	66	129	146	88	66	129
Total reasons	1.41	61.95	59.43	58.56	63.99	14.22	16.07	11.86	19.88	−5.41	−4.09	−4.32	−4.57	4.55*	2.48*	2.73*	2.47*
	1.42	56.54	55.34	54.24	59.42	11.41	12.29	11.73	16.51								
Accurate reasons	1.41	42.50	39.09	39.70	40.95	9.58	11.40	7.85	8.81	−0.31	0.57	0.15	1.59	....	....	....	1.64
	1.42	42.19	39.66	39.85	42.54	9.17	9.19	8.18	9.31								
Ratio	1.41	4.84	4.66	4.92	5.04	0.95	1.19	1.22	1.44	0.11	0.06	−0.16	−0.08	2.20	0.46	1.23*	0.53*
	1.42	4.95	4.72	4.76	4.96	0.97	0.98	0.96	1.23								
Number inconsistent reasons†	1.41	7.96	7.75	8.36	9.44	4.58	4.15	6.52	8.24	0.60	−0.30	0.78	0.96	1.30	....	1.08	1.37
	1.42	7.36	8.05	7.58	8.48	4.76	4.91	4.58	7.76								
Percentage inconsistent reasons†	1.41	10.51	9.73	11.06	11.59	8.31	7.90	8.96	9.48	1.11	−1.59	−0.46	1.07	1.42	1.75*	0.44*	1.32
	1.42	9.40	11.32	11.52	10.52	7.14	7.64	7.26	8.42								
Untenable reasons†	1.41	8.03	8.02	8.35	8.33	2.89	2.76	2.33	3.24	0.82	0.60	1.35	0.28	3.04	1.76	3.97	0.93
	1.42	7.21	7.42	7.00	8.05	2.42	2.58	2.30	3.17								

TABLE 20 — *Continued*

Comparison of the Growth Made by the Groups Using the Problems, Topical, and Chronological Approaches in Their Ability to Use Value Principles in New Situations as Shown by Their Scores on the Social Problems Test, Form 1.41, Taken at the Beginning of the School Year, and on Form 1.42, Taken at the End of the School Year

BEHAVIORS EVALUATED	TEST FORM	MEANS				STANDARD DEVIATIONS				DIFFERENCE IN MEANS				CRITICAL RATIO			
		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors	
		Problems	Topical	Problems	Chronological	Problems	Topical	Problems	Chronological	Problems	Topical	Problems	Chronological	Problems	Topical	Problems	Chronological
Number of Students		146	88	66	129	146	88	66	129	146	88	66	129	146	88	66	129
Irrelevant reasons†	1.41	4.69	4.85	4.47	4.91	2.14	2.26	2.29	2.63	3.48	3.29	3.09	3.46	18.32	13.16	9.97	15.73*
	1.42	1.21	1.56	1.38	1.45	0.96	1.30	1.11	1.51								
Democratic values	1.41	27.77	22.67	24.24	25.94	7.42	9.35	6.84	7.44	7.95	8.64	7.96	9.54	9.58	6.86	6.63	9.84
	1.42	35.72	31.31	32.20	35.48	10.43	11.46	10.59	10.59								
Undemocratic values†	1.41	6.55	8.50	7.58	7.85	3.79	4.85	4.42	5.39	-5.33	-5.45	-5.57	-5.39	8.74*	6.26*	6.71*	7.70
	1.42	11.88	13.95	13.15	13.24	6.87	8.58	6.80	9.40								
Rationalization†	1.41	8.37	7.68	8.45	9.59	3.53	3.54	3.28	4.79	5.03	3.68	4.68	5.73	19.35	9.20	10.64	13.64
	1.42	3.34	4.00	3.77	3.86	2.02	2.12	1.74	2.46								

* Loss rather than gain.
† Low scores desirable.

reading ability, and taught by teachers using different approaches but of comparable experience, training, units of teaching load, and competence, the following conclusions are drawn on the relative merit of the problem-solving and topical approaches in affecting student behavior.

1. *The students in the groups using the problem-solving approach not only made significant growth in more aspects of critical thinking than the students in the groups using the topical approach, but they also demonstrated superior ability.*—The students in the group using the problems approach made significant growth in their ability to interpret data, to make qualified and unqualified judgments from the data, and to recognize the limitations of data in drawing generalizations—the behaviors evaluated by the *Interpretation of Data Tests,* 2.51 and 2.52 (Table 19). The topical group made a significant improvement in their scores on only one behavior and were less able to make unqualified judgments at the end of the year than they had been at the beginning. Likewise, the problems group made more growth than the paired group in the behaviors evaluated by the *Social Problems Tests,* 1.41 and 1.42—understanding the relationship between value principles and new problems situations, avoiding irrelevant and untenable reasons, and rationalizing less (Table 20). The mean scores for the problems group were also better than those of the topical group on every section of the final forms of the *Interpretation of Data Test* and the *Social Problems Test.* ·

While it was impossible to compare the growth made by the two groups in their ability to analyze arguments and judge the soundness of conclusions because the two forms of the *Nature of Proof Test* are not comparable, the problems group demonstrated superior ability at the end of the year's study on every behavior evaluated by the test and in most instances their scores were significantly better (Table 21). They showed more comprehensiveness, more discrimination, challenged more of the questionable assumptions, and reacted more critically to the conclusions they were asked to accept or reject.

2. *The students in groups using the problem-solving approach made significant growth in more work habits and study skills than the students in the topical group and demonstrated superior skill in the use of the library and in research techniques.*—Although the students in the groups using both approaches made significant improvement in their ability to use library and research techniques, the students in the problems group made growth which was statistically significant in more of the behaviors evaluated and they also demonstrated superior skill to that shown by the students in the topical group on every

TABLE 21

COMPARISON OF THE ABILITY OF STUDENTS IN PROBLEM-SOLVING, TOPICAL, AND CHRONOLOGICAL GROUPS TO ANALYZE ARGUMENTS AS SHOWN BY THE SCORES MADE AT THE END OF A YEAR'S STUDY ON THE NATURE OF PROOF TEST, 5.22*

Behaviors Evaluated	Means Seniors Problems	Means Seniors Topical	Means Juniors Problems	Means Juniors Chrono.	St.Dev. Seniors Problems	St.Dev. Seniors Topical	St.Dev. Juniors Problems	St.Dev. Juniors Chrono.	Diff. in Means Seniors	Diff. in Means Juniors	Critical Ratio Seniors	Critical Ratio Juniors
Number of Students	146	68	66	51	146	68	66	51				
Percentage marked as supporting:												
Support	73.73	65.22	62.20	55.15	14.20	15.01	19.09	14.15	8.51	7.05	3.92	2.33
Irrelevant	18.29	28.38	27.50	31.23	10.08	13.00	14.12	15.30	10.09	3.73	5.67	1.38
Contradictory	8.80	16.54	17.95	23.38	9.22	15.10	13.59	16.59	7.74	5.43	3.91	1.95
Percentage marked as contradictory:												
Contradictory	74.18	61.54	54.39	46.13	16.64	18.89	29.00	24.68	12.64	8.26	4.73	1.69
Irrelevant	29.90	35.51	31.82	31.23	16.90	15.05	17.45	17.51	5.61	0.59	2.44	0.18
Support	12.05	16.62	14.47	24.07	10.05	11.66	9.57	12.39	4.57	9.60	2.79	4.71
Percentage of supporting statements marked as critical:												
Critical	40.58	27.65	17.95	22.50	15.05	14.68	13.31	16.89	12.93	4.55	5.93	1.62
Noncritical	18.66	15.51	11.59	13.97	11.57	9.67	12.18	10.59	3.15	2.38	2.09	1.15
Accurate Conclusions	5.29	4.15	3.85	4.95	1.50	1.56	1.67	1.51	1.14	1.10	5.18	3.79
Percentage marked as relevant:												
Relevant	72.64	66.91	64.55	53.38	13.37	15.99	17.86	15.65	5.73	11.17	2.56	3.66
Irrelevant	45.99	49.04	47.73	39.56	16.73	19.16	20.55	13.47	3.05	8.17	1.13	2.62
Percentage of relevant marked as practicable:												
Practicable	60.65	48.07	34.82	28.48	17.91	21.79	22.99	20.79	12.58	6.34	4.15	1.59
Impracticable	28.60	31.47	20.15	18.09	15.77	19.28	14.73	10.69	2.87	2.06	1.07	0.89

* All scores are given in percentage.

TABLE 22

COMPARISON OF THE GROWTH MADE BY STUDENTS IN THE PROBLEM-SOLVING, TOPICAL, AND CHRONOLOGICAL GROUPS IN THEIR ABILITY TO USE BOOKS AND LIBRARY FACILITIES AND TO JUDGE THE RELIABILITY OF SOURCES OF INFORMATION AS SHOWN BY THEIR SCORES ON THE LIBRARY AND SOURCE OF INFORMATION TEST, FORM A, TAKEN AT THE BEGINNING OF THE SCHOOL YEAR, AND ON FORM B TAKEN AT THE END OF THE SCHOOL YEAR*

BEHAVIORS EVALUATED	TEST FORMS	MEANS				STANDARD DEVIATION				DIFFERENCE IN MEANS				CRITICAL RATIO			
		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors	
		Prob.	Topic.	Prob.	Chron.	Prob.	Topic.	Prob.	Chron.	Prob.	Topic.	Prob.	Chron.	Prob.	Topic.	Prob.	Chron.
Number of Students		146	88	66	129	146	88	66	129	146	88	66	129	146	88	66	129
Use of book	A	73.08	67.56		74.48	16.97	17.43		15.59	5.65	4.20		0.15	4.15	2.15		.....
	B	78.73	71.96		74.63	14.39	18.05		15.97								
Use of index	A	92.88	85.11		84.32	8.93	15.24		11.44	-2.16	4.61		6.68	2.30†	2.92		5.81
	B	90.72	89.72		91.18	9.27	12.10		8.11								
Use of card catalogue	A	64.25	62.22		68.12	13.87	14.83		16.26	6.78	5.51		0.08	5.79	3.26		.....
	B	71.03	67.73		68.20	10.27	11.77		12.20								
Use of Readers' Guide	A	71.75	62.10		60.64	16.70	18.91		15.85	0.30	2.28		5.00	0.27	1.35		3.14
	B	72.05	64.38		65.64	12.69	15.74		14.10								
Reference Material	A	48.73	44.77		40.21	15.69	15.41		18.68	9.59	10.52		17.87	7.05	6.61		9.31
	B	58.32	55.28		58.08	13.99	13.81		14.10								
Sources of Information	A	54.18	45.97		33.16	14.07	18.75		21.04	5.14	10.00		24.22	3.50	4.33		11.42
	B	59.32	55.97		57.38	16.82	17.34		16.93								
Total	A	67.91	60.91		58.66	9.84	11.81		11.72	2.84	5.57		9.65	5.26	6.05		8.77
	B	70.75	66.48		68.31	9.15	11.72		10.15								

* All scores are given in percentage.
† Loss rather than gain.

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section of the *Library and Sources of Information Test* (Table 22).
Both groups improved significantly in their ability to use the card
catalogue and standard reference material and to judge the reliability
of the sources of their information. The problems group also made

TABLE 23

COMPARISON OF THE TYPE OF MAGAZINES READ IN SEPTEMBER AND MAY BY 109 SEN-
IORS USING THE PROBLEMS APPROACH AND 79 SENIORS USING THE TOPICAL APPROACH

MAGAZINES	PROBLEM-SOLVING								TOPICAL APPROACH							
	Sept.			May			R*		Sept.			May			R*	
	R*%	O%	S%	R%	O%	S%	Dif-fer-ence	Crit-ical Ratio	R%	O%	S%	R%	O%	S%	Dif-fer-ence	Crit-ical Ratio
Popular Weeklies																
Saturday Evening Post	28	29	23	28	29	24	....	....	15	25	16	14	30	15	−1	....
Collier's	10	37	23	15	36	23	5	1.12	8	29	22	13	23	29	5	1.02
Liberty	9	22	41	6	25	37	−3	0.85	15	25	16	9	29	24	−6	1.17
Popular Monthlies																
Ladies' Home Journal	23	15	29	20	21	23	−3	0.54	18	10	22	19	23	14	1	....
Good Housekeeping	18	19	25	15	32	22	−3	0.64	16	22	15	23	16	16	7	1.12
McCall's	16	9	24	14	16	26	−2	....	9	13	15	10	19	15	1	....
American Magazine	13	21	18	9	18	21	−4	0.96	10	8	18	10	14	20	....	....
Cosmopolitan	13	12	25	9	13	23	−4	0.96	16	14	14	14	15	19	−2	0.35
Woman's Home Companion	8	17	17	10	14	22	2	....	5	10	15	3	16	13	−2	0.64
Redbook	6	4	22	3	10	23	−3	1.10	4	15	15	9	13	16	5	1.44
Picture Magazines																
Life	49	31	12	60	25	8	11	1.71	38	39	3	50	28	6	12	1.53
Look	9	29	19	16	31	18	7	1.61	11	33	11	19	30	9	8	1.42
Pic	4	12	21	5	20	15	1	....	10	23	10	8	22	20	−2	0.43
Click	2	21	16	6	19	14	4	1.57	24	22	11	10	24	15	−14	2.38
Nonfiction Weeklies																
Time	17	25	18	10	31	17	−7	1.56	34	27	8	35	14	15	1	....
Newsweek	5	26	13	6	20	25	−1	....	9	23	8	10	14	23	1	....
Nation	2	6	14	2	5	19	....	....	4	5	10	..	4	22	−4	1.82
Monthly Reviews																
National Geographic	14	16	15	16	15	15	2	....	8	15	10	8	14	18	....	....
Reader's Digest	11	34	6	48	28	10	37	6.81	24	56	9	20	32	15	−4	0.61
Harper's	7	10	15	4	18	17	−3	1.00	1	1	10	3	10	15	2	0.91
Current History	4	16	11	..	26	23	−4	2.22	..	3	9	3	8	23	3	1.58
Forum	3	6	16	3	14	22	....	....	..	3	10	..	3	19	....	....
Atlantic Monthly	..	12	13	5	25	24	5	2.50	1	1	10	..	4	22	−1	....
American Mercury	..	5	15	..	6	17	....	....	1	..	9	..	3	19	−1	....
Commentator	2	4	13	..	6	14	−2	1.54	..	9	10	..	3	23	....	....
Classroom Magazines																
American Observer	4	17	12	2	37	27	−2	0.90	5	5	15	4	6	24	−1	....
Scholastic	5	12	16	4	26	24	−1	....	..	5	15	..	14	24	....	....
Current Events	2	6	13	3	17	14	1	....	..	5	8	3	6	24	3	1.58
Weekly News Review	..	1	11	1	10	9	1	....	..	9	13	..	4	19	....	....
Pathfinder	..	4	9	2	9	7	2	1.54	..	5	15	1	6	20	1	....

* R—Reads regularly; i.e., from two thirds to all of the issues during the past three months.
O—Reads occasionally; i.e., from one third to two thirds of the issues during the past three months.
S—Reads seldom; i.e., fewer than one third of the issues during the past three months.

TABLE 24

COMPARISON OF THE NEWSPAPER READING DONE BY STUDENTS IN GROUPS
USING THE PROBLEMS, TOPICAL, AND CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACHES

Behavior Evaluated	Senior Problems (N=78) %	Senior Topics (N=53) %	Critical Ratio*	Junior Problems (N=66) %	Junior Chronological (N=129) %	Critical Ratio*
Number of newspapers read daily:						
0....................	0	17	3.26	20	11	1.59
1....................	76	53	2.87	44	50	.79
2....................	21	21	....	26	30	.59
3....................	3	9	1.5	11	9	....
Hours per week spent in reading newspapers:						
7+...................	28	36	....	6	19	....
6....................	5	9	....	6	5	....
5....................	22	8	....	14	12	....
4....................	7	9	....	18	11	....
3....................	16	11	....	21	21	....
2....................	16	13	....	15	19	....
1....................	4	7	....	17	9	....
0....................	2	8	....	3	5	....
Mean Hours............	4.97	4.99	....	4.24	3.8	.86
Political theory followed by newspapers read daily:†						
Reactionary...........	1	4	....	0	11	3.92
Conservative..........	84	49	4.24	45	60	2.00
Liberal...............	11	17	.90	55	22	4.66
Radical...............	20	9	1.29	3	4	....
Unknown..............	7	40	4.52	24	50	3.77
Sections of newspaper read daily:						
News.................	66	51	1.71	59	61	.27
Editorials.............	18	13	.78	9	11	.45
Financial.............	4	2	....	6	0	....
Funnies..............	93	89	....	89	93	....
Magazines............	13	26	1.81	6	15	2.13
Columnists...........	33	9	3.63	2	2	....
Book reviews.........	5	15	1.81	2	7	....
Theater notes.........	45	45	....	33	33	....
Music notes...........	16	23	....	5	10	....
Art notes.............	11	6	....	0	5	....
Sports...............	54	53	....	39	53	1.88
Stories...............	14	19	....	21	12	1.90
Society..............	33	45	1.38	24	22	....
Ads..................	22	30	....	20	18	....
Radio................	59	49	1.12	29	53	1.96
Rotogravure..........	22	11	1.70	11	9	....

* The ratio of the difference in the percentages to the standard error of that difference was figured from the tables supplied by Harold A. Edgerton and Donald G. Paterson in the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. X, No. 3 (1926), pp. 378-92.

† According to student opinion.

TABLE 25

A COMPARISON OF THE MEAN READING LEVEL OF THE STUDENTS
IN THREE OF THE GROUPS PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY AS REVEALED BY THE
MAGAZINE QUESTIONNAIRE, TOGETHER WITH THE AVERAGE NUMBER OF MAGAZINES
READ REGULARLY BY THE STUDENTS IN EACH GROUP*

GROUPS	No.	READING LEVEL				CRITI-CAL RATIO	NUMBER READ			
		Fall		Spring			Fall		Spring	
		m	σ	m	σ		m	σ	m	σ
Senior Problems	109	82.73	27.82	82.50	34.56	....	5.43	3.13	5.37	3.86
Senior Topical..	79	70.54	37.83	75.54	37.42	0.83	4.59	3.42	5.11	4.24
Junior Chrono-logical.......	129	73.31	32.93	77.34	31.52	1.00	4.85	3.78	5.76	4.84

* The reading level of the students was computed by means of Wert's scale for evaluating the quality of magazine reading on the assumption that the quality of reading done by a group can be estimated by evaluating the quality of their magazine reading material only (James E. Wert, "A Technique for Determining Levels of Group Reading," *Educational Research Bulletin*, Vol. XVI, No. 4 [May 19, 1937], p. 116).

significant improvement in their ability to use a book. Neither group improved significantly in their use of the index, a skill in which they already excelled, and they made little improvement in their ability to use the *Readers' Guide*.

While the problems group showed better newspaper reading habits than the topical group in that all of them read a daily paper, more of them read a political columnist, and more of them knew the policies of the paper they read, their reading habits were far from desirable (Table 24). The magazine reading habits of both groups were little better than their newspaper reading habits. Most of the reading done was confined to popular magazines, and the better monthly magazines were practically unknown (Table 23). Neither group improved their reading level significantly, although the mean reading level, according to Wert's Scale, of the students in the problems group was slightly better than that of the paired group (Table 25).

3. *The students in the problem-solving group made significant growth in knowledge and understanding and knew more about contemporary affairs than the students in the topical group.*—The seniors using the problems approach became significantly more proficient in their knowledge of concepts and generalizations considered important in social education (Table 26). They thus demonstrated that growth in knowledge can and does take place at the same time that attention is being given to other objectives. The topical-approach group did not take the *Cooperative Social Studies Achievement Test*,

TABLE 26

COMPARISON OF THE GROWTH IN FUNCTIONAL INFORMATION MADE BY THE GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS AND CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACHES DURING ONE SCHOOL YEAR AS REVEALED BY THE COOPERATIVE AMERICAN HISTORY AND SOCIAL STUDIES ACHIEVEMENT TESTS*

TESTS AND GROUPS	No.	MEANS		STANDARD DEVIATIONS		r	DIFFERENCE IN MEANS	STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFERENCE	CRITICAL RATIO
		Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test				
American History Test *(Forms Q and R)*									
Problems.........	66	45.15	45.68	8.59	9.33	0.54	0.53	1.06	0.50
Chronological......	129	46.18	61.45	8.17	10.80	0.37	15.27	0.96	15.91
General Achievement Test (Forms Q and R)									
Problems.........	146	52.60	58.42	8.14	10.14	0.71	5.82	0.60	9.70
Topical...........	....	.....	.....	.....	.....	....	.....	.....	.....

* The scores presented in this table are scaled scores. Raw scores were converted into scaled scores by means of tables supplied by the Cooperative Test Bureau.

TABLE 27

COMPARISON OF THE KNOWLEDGE OF CONTEMPORARY AFFAIRS HELD BY THE STUDENTS IN THE PROBLEMS, CHRONOLOGICAL, AND TOPICAL GROUPS AT THE BEGINNING AND AT THE END OF THE STUDY

AREAS AND GROUPS	No.	MEANS		STANDARD DEVIATIONS		r	DIFFERENCE IN MEANS	STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFERENCE	CRITICAL RATIO
		Pre-Test (1940)	End-Test (1941)	Pre-Test (1940)	End-Test (1941)				
Political Events									
Junior Problems.....	66	12.27	11.24	5.77	6.45	0.64	−1.03	0.64	1.61*
Chronological......	51	14.33	18.69	6.67	6.38	0.49	4.36	0.92	4.74
Social-economic Events									
Junior Problems.....	66	5.61	11.48	5.04	5.03	0.68	5.87	0.50	11.74
Chronological......	51	6.33	16.10	4.85	6.55	0.48	9.77	0.84	11.63
Total Score									
Junior Problems.....	66	35.38	38.03	14.01	17.88	0.77	2.65	1.41	1.88
Chronological......	51	40.34	59.46	16.19	19.03	0.45	19.12	2.61	7.33
Political Events									
Senior Problems.....	146	14.38	14.34	6.16	6.80	0.62	−0.04	0.46	......
Topical...........	68	10.38	10.94	6.41	5.11	0.51	0.56	0.71	......
Socio-economic Events									
Senior Problems.....	146	7.37	13.29	5.58	5.97	0.53	5.92	0.46	12.87
Topical...........	68	4.91	9.65	4.16	5.56	0.50	4.74	0.60	7.90
Total Score									
Senior Problems.....	146	43.94	46.30	16.84	19.22	0.73	2.36	1.11	2.13
Topical...........	68	35.44	37.28	15.20	15.08	0.66	1.84	1.51	1.22

* Loss, not gain, indicated.

and so no comparison can be made between the two groups. The problems group, however, knew more about contemporary affairs at the end of the year than the paired group according to their scores on the *Contemporary Affairs Test* (Table 27). Although both groups possessed more information about current events at the end of the year than they had at the beginning, the improvement in their mean scores was not great enough to be significant except on the section of the test dealing with socio-economic events.

4. *The students in the group using the problems approach made more growth toward a liberal, consistent, and certain point of view than the students in the groups using the topical approach.*—The problems-approach group became significantly more liberal in every area in which attitudes were appraised, while the students in the topical group made no score on the end-test which was significantly higher than that on the pre-test, although attitudes expressed in each area were modified toward a more liberal position (Table 28). Both groups also were significantly more consistent in their point of view at the end of the study than they had been when the study started, but where the topical group showed this increased consistency in four areas only, the problems group was more consistent in all areas. The performance of the problems group on both the *Scale of Beliefs* and the *Social Problems Test* would indicate that their growth in liberalism and consistency was due to more certainty in areas where they had formerly been uncertain and confused rather than to a change from conservatism to liberalism (Table 29). Both groups accepted and applied more undemocratic as well as more democratic principles in their analysis of controversial social problems (Table 20, page 159).

5. *The students in the problems-approach group showed more interest in a wider range of activities than the students in the topical group, but neither group developed an outstanding interest in the activities classified under social studies or changed their interest significantly as a result of their year's study.*—An appraisal of the effect of the various approaches to social-studies instruction on the interest patterns developed by the students with whom the approaches were used is particularly difficult because so many factors in the total environment exert an influence upon the interests of students. Since it is almost impossible to screen out these factors, it is difficult to say how much of the change in interest was due to the approach used. The data collected, however, show that the senior-problems group broadened and deepened their reading interest during the year more than the topical group (Table 30) and that they had a higher reading level (Table 25, page 165). Moreover, 56 per cent of the students in the problems group

TABLE 28

COMPARISON OF THE GROWTH IN LIBERALISM AND CONSISTENCY MADE BY THE STUDENTS IN THE TWO SENIOR GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS AND TOPICAL APPROACHES AS SHOWN BY THEIR SCORES ON THE SCALE OF BELIEFS TEST, 4.21-4.31*

BEHAVIORS EVALUATED	MEAN				STANDARD DEVIATION				DIFFERENCE IN MEANS		r		STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFERENCE		CRITICAL RATIO	
	Problems (N=182)		Topical (N=68)		Problems (N=182)		Topical (N=68)									
	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test	Prob-lems	Top-ical	Prob-lems	Top-ical	Prob-lems	Top-ical	Prob-lems	Top-ical
Liberalism																
Democracy	61.90	65.85	60.51	63.16	12.44	12.10	12.31	13.69	3.95	2.65	0.51	0.65	0.90	1.33	4.39	1.99
Economic relations	51.87	58.38	51.32	55.66	17.64	18.00	17.85	18.49	6.51	4.34	0.62	0.70	1.15	1.72	5.66	2.52
Labor-unemployment	59.97	67.28	54.26	58.38	15.91	15.67	17.40	18.71	7.31	4.12	0.70	0.71	0.91	1.67	8.03	2.47
Race	65.36	69.45	57.28	62.35	22.66	24.90	21.31	21.86	4.09	5.07	0.73	0.64	1.31	2.22	3.12	2.28
Nationalism	53.71	60.36	51.62	51.76	13.68	15.20	13.61	14.68	6.65	0.14	0.60	0.57	0.96	1.59	6.93	....
Militarism	53.76	61.24	48.53	51.32	16.46	18.28	15.61	16.10	7.48	2.79	0.60	0.64	1.15	1.63	6.50	1.71
Consistency																
Democracy	58.08	62.83	57.72	62.65	12.79	13.55	15.23	13.53	4.75	4.93	0.28	0.69	1.17	1.39	4.06	3.55
Economic relations	51.70	58.54	51.54	56.32	15.99	16.00	16.66	17.17	6.84	4.78	0.32	0.39	1.39	2.27	4.92	2.11
Labor-unemployment	55.88	64.78	56.91	62.21	14.33	15.01	16.33	15.29	8.90	5.30	0.40	0.52	1.19	1.88	7.48	2.82
Race	66.20	73.63	61.62	69.78	18.75	18.74	21.14	16.53	7.43	8.16	0.47	0.43	1.43	2.48	5.20	3.29
Nationalism	49.07	57.64	50.59	56.76	14.54	13.76	16.65	15.18	8.57	6.17	0.41	0.63	1.14	1.67	7.52	3.69
Militarism	58.24	66.21	57.35	63.01	13.72	15.27	14.83	16.00	7.97	5.66	0.35	0.61	1.23	1.66	6.48	3.41
Totals																
Liberalism	57.25	63.24	54.04	56.25	12.16	13.04	11.09	12.11	5.99	2.21	0.70	0.74	0.73	1.02	8.21	2.17
Conservatism	22.20	21.98	30.29	28.75	8.05	9.53	7.40	10.20	0.22	1.54	0.62	0.70	0.58	0.88	....	1.75
Uncertainty	22.20	16.37	17.87	16.10	12.94	12.09	11.86	12.54	5.83	1.77	0.46	0.62	0.97	1.29	6.01	1.37
Consistency	55.16	62.14	55.00	60.22	9.52	11.04	12.38	11.86	6.98	5.22	0.52	0.79	0.76	0.95	9.18	5.49

* All scores are given in percentage.

TABLE 29

SCORES MADE BY THE GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS, CHRONOLOGICAL, AND TOPICAL APPROACHES ON THE SCALE OF BELIEFS TEST*

	MEANS								STANDARD DEVIATION							
	Senior Group				Junior Group				Senior Group				Junior Group			
	Problems (N=182)		Topical (N=68)		Problems (N=66)		Chronological (N=51)		Problems (N=182)		Topical (N=68)		Problems (N=66)		Chronological (N=51)	
BEHAVIORS EVALUATED	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test
Liberalism																
Democracy	61.90	65.85	60.51	63.16	56.44	58.18	62.70	66.42	12.44	12.10	12.31	13.69	13.10	11.31	10.93	11.48
Economic relations	51.87	58.38	51.32	55.66	48.48	55.98	58.19	58.77	17.64	18.01	17.85	18.49	16.50	16.70	16.60	15.71
Labor unemployment	59.97	67.28	54.26	58.38	52.65	58.33	54.36	61.13	15.91	15.67	17.40	18.71	17.01	16.96	14.72	17.38
Race	65.36	69.45	57.28	62.35	65.38	74.39	61.13	64.17	22.66	24.90	21.31	21.86	21.14	23.63	21.70	23.74
Nationalism	53.71	60.36	51.62	51.76	44.70	50.23	51.52	54.85	13.68	15.20	13.61	14.68	11.20	13.52	11.46	14.15
Militarism	53.76	61.24	48.53	51.32	44.92	49.77	48.28	52.79	16.46	18.28	15.61	16.10	12.92	15.98	14.19	15.95
Conservatism																
Democracy	19.84	20.88	25.37	25.37	23.32	26.06	25.85	25.32	7.78	8.86	7.74	8.97	9.04	8.35	7.96	7.36
Economic relations	24.26	23.96	30.51	28.82	26.67	25.30	27.01	31.23	14.30	15.25	16.61	17.21	11.13	12.47	13.98	12.98
Labor unemployment	17.28	17.09	26.40	24.04	21.97	23.94	25.25	28.77	9.76	11.96	13.06	14.98	12.44	12.15	10.72	14.10
Race	15.16	16.43	25.96	23.31	15.91	15.00	21.81	27.79	15.30	18.74	16.79	19.51	14.83	16.10	15.62	22.54
Nationalism	25.03	23.46	30.96	32.79	31.89	31.52	27.40	35.25	11.05	11.11	10.62	12.12	11.28	11.20	8.75	12.01
Militarism	26.87	25.33	35.81	35.37	31.82	32.88	37.30	39.09	12.10	13.18	12.91	12.52	14.40	13.52	10.56	11.65
Uncertainty																
Democracy	19.89	14.78	14.78	13.90	21.59	17.50	13.09	9.56	12.84	12.05	11.33	13.69	14.87	12.38	10.55	9.64
Economic relations	26.24	20.38	19.56	18.38	29.24	20.76	17.22	12.90	17.31	15.72	15.72	16.74	17.76	14.81	13.44	11.83
Labor unemployment	23.85	16.68	21.76	19.04	26.44	18.94	21.62	11.18	15.39	13.20	14.53	15.03	17.76	14.14	14.41	12.33
Race	20.16	15.52	18.01	12.65	19.02	12.50	17.70	9.38	16.27	17.64	15.51	13.80	15.52	16.47	15.96	10.89
Nationalism	22.42	17.03	18.53	16.99	24.47	19.92	17.70	9.84	13.25	13.07	13.60	14.51	13.81	13.63	12.44	11.20
Militarism	21.46	16.46	18.53	16.62	25.76	20.76	17.21	11.23	14.95	14.00	14.16	13.23	15.74	13.13	12.50	10.93
Consistency																
Democracy	58.08	62.83	57.72	62.65	50.73	54.58	56.72	59.56	12.79	13.55	15.23	13.53	14.59	13.21	14.36	15.02
Economic relations	51.70	58.54	51.54	56.32	47.27	51.58	55.05	53.68	15.99	16.00	16.66	17.17	14.58	14.73	12.54	16.29
Labor unemployment	55.88	64.78	56.91	62.21	51.65	56.56	51.72	62.79	14.33	15.01	16.33	15.29	15.87	16.87	14.93	18.08
Race	66.20	73.63	61.62	69.78	62.42	73.12	59.85	64.85	18.75	18.74	21.14	16.53	22.83	18.32	21.40	20.99
Nationalism	49.07	57.64	50.59	56.76	42.81	48.12	49.56	55.44	14.54	13.76	16.65	15.18	12.21	13.40	12.76	17.10
Militarism	58.24	66.21	57.35	63.01	47.65	54.12	54.17	58.87	13.72	15.27	14.83	16.00	13.07	14.63	13.78	17.66

* All scores are given in percentage.

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believed that their classroom experience had started them reading better magazines, while only 42 per cent of the topical group thought that their work in the classroom had had any effect on their magazine reading.

Although the problems group demonstrated more interest than the topical group in the activities sampled in every area of the *Interest Index* with the exception of home economics (Table 30), and in every area of the *Contemporary Affairs Test* except literature (Table 31), they did not increase their interest in the social studies significantly (Table 32) or show a growth of interest in any aspect of contemporary life which was significant with the exception of the socio-economic phase. The large percentage of apathy and dislike for the social studies expressed by the students in both groups would indicate that neither approach had been successful in stimulating the dynamic interest in civic life which is necessary for active and effective citizenship.

While the problems group showed more interest in school activities and contemporary affairs than the topical group, there is little evidence to show that one approach was more successful than the other in developing recreational and social interests. Both groups had a well-developed interest in music and art and liked sports, movies, and the radio, although their tastes were not too discriminating. Both groups saw many movies, liked most of them, were indifferent to a few, but disliked practically none (Table 33). They also listened to many radio programs and seemed to have more pronounced preferences in radio entertainment than in movies, for they liked only half of the programs they heard (Table 34). Whether this showed intelligent discrimination is doubtful, for dance programs, mixed programs, and serials ranked first, second, and third with both groups in the number of programs listened to and liked. The topical group averaged 3.8 hours at the radio each day, and the students in the problems group 3.48 hours. The radio log, theater notes, and sports section in the newspaper had approximately the same percentage of followers in each group (Table 24, page 164).

Comparison of the Chronological and Problems Approaches

While the data are quite clear that the problems approach facilitates greater change in the behavioral pattern of youth than the topical approach, the evidence as to the relative superiority of the problems approach and the chronological approach is in no way conclusive. The conclusions as to the relative merit of these two approaches are based on the evidence gathered on the change in behavior which took place during one school year in the students of two junior groups matched as to intelligence, reading ability, and socio-economic background and

taught by teachers using different approaches but with comparable training, experience, ability, and units of teaching load.

1. *The students in neither of the junior groups using the problems or the chronological approach made growth which was significant in many of the aspects of critical thinking evaluated in the study.*—While neither group significantly improved in the general accuracy with which they interpreted data (Table 19, page 157), at the end of the year the problems group made significantly fewer errors as a result of too great caution, and the chronological group was significantly more aware of the often insufficiency of data for drawing any valid conclusions. The problems group, on the other hand, was less accurate with interpretations where the data were insufficient than they had been on the pre-test. Both groups rationalized less in applying value principles in new situations (Table 20) and used fewer irrelevant reasons in supporting the conclusions they accepted. The problems-approach group also used fewer untenable reasons. The latter group at the end of the study showed slightly more discrimination in analyzing arguments than the chronological group but were more inaccurate in judging the soundness of conclusions already drawn. (Table 21, page 161). The small amount of growth made by the students in the two groups would indicate that the teachers of American history who participated in this study, whether they used the problems or the chronological approach, put too little emphasis on the skills involved in critical thinking.

2. *The students in the group using the chronological approach made significant improvement in their ability to use research techniques but showed no significant change in their magazine and newspaper reading skills and habits.*—No comparison can be made of the progress in work habits and study skills made by the chronological and problems groups due to the invalidity of the final scores of the problems group on the *Library and Sources of Information Test* and the fact that the problems group did not turn in any replies to the magazine questionnaire. The students in the chronological group not only showed no improvement in their magazine reading habits and skill as a result of their year's experience (Table 35), but most of them frankly admitted that the school had had little effect upon their reading interests and habits. They did, however, make significant improvement in their ability to use the index of a book, the *Readers' Guide,* and reference materials and in their ability to judge the reliability of the sources of information they used—the research techniques needed in seeking accurate information (Table 22, page 162). The newspaper reading habits and skills of the students in both groups

TABLE 30

A COMPARISON OF THE LIKES AND DISLIKES OF THE STUDENTS IN GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS, TOPICAL, AND CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACHES AS SHOWN BY THEIR RESPONSES ON THE INTEREST INDEX, 8.2a*

Category	Test	LIKES Means Seniors Prob. (N=182)	Topic. (N=88)	Juniors Prob. (N=66)	Chron. (N=129)	LIKES S.D. Seniors Prob. (N=182)	Topic. (N=88)	Juniors Prob. (N=66)	Chron. (N=129)	DISLIKES Means Seniors Prob. (N=182)	Topic. (N=88)	Juniors Prob. (N=66)	Chron. (N=129)	DISLIKES S.D. Seniors Prob. (N=182)	Topic. (N=88)	Juniors Prob. (N=66)	Ch. (N=129)
Social studies	Pre	38.79	39.32	32.58	42.23	24.58	27.05	23.89	26.98	25.49	23.47	25.00	23.70	23.64	23.05	25.06	24.67
	End	42.75	40.23	40.76	41.69	27.29	31.08	24.92	29.60	26.21	24.43	23.86	23.90	19.07	20.24	20.14	22.34
Reading	Pre	45.21	41.29	33.88	48.65	21.71	22.40	22.15	23.06	25.38	25.45	30.39	21.60	21.31	19.00	22.94	17.64
	End	53.16	42.37	48.06	48.81	23.85	25.72	23.35	24.17	22.66	25.16	25.32	20.83	19.61	21.45	21.37	19.06
English	Pre	48.56	48.22	41.69	42.30	23.05	27.00	24.83	24.99	23.87	21.98	28.80	26.18	19.86	21.11	20.19	21.09
	End	59.95	49.47	52.00	41.04	25.02	28.08	26.27	23.99	22.25	22.78	23.65	26.73	20.00	22.12	19.84	19.84
Foreign language	Pre	37.16	44.19	38.81	45.90	30.92	30.36	32.53	27.57	23.32	27.95	28.73	24.78	26.17	28.07	28.62	26.05
	End	54.23	42.83	51.54	45.37	33.36	30.91	32.12	31.06	24.75	29.25	28.80	24.55	26.01	29.48	28.05	26.48
Fine arts	Pre	43.31	43.23	30.93	38.03	28.14	30.48	24.22	26.37	25.77	27.26	32.21	28.00	25.65	25.41	25.70	25.57
	End	55.74	47.24	47.45	38.62	29.77	33.00	25.67	27.54	19.91	22.04	25.54	26.06	21.13	22.64	19.82	24.01
Music	Pre	52.44	48.11	39.11	40.32	28.86	33.32	28.86	27.91	21.56	25.62	27.44	31.25	22.25	25.33	25.84	25.93
	End	59.59	55.10	50.48	45.14	28.17	31.61	28.49	27.66	20.60	21.76	25.24	27.04	21.67	21.68	24.87	25.15
Home economics	Pre	55.16	58.96	48.51	50.86	29.60	27.98	30.87	30.09	19.39	16.98	24.71	21.95	20.75	19.49	23.72	20.05
	End	57.06	61.17	69.05	52.07	30.44	28.51	30.05	31.67	20.13	15.28	19.56	20.75	20.93	21.32	20.14	21.79
Industrial arts	Pre	48.33	44.65	46.77	56.60	25.85	26.54	28.38	26.50	23.54	26.19	24.26	19.20	22.09	21.92	23.62	20.62
	End	57.42	46.07	57.58	56.96	26.77	28.02	27.77	26.77	21.20	23.12	20.01	15.60	20.24	21.23	22.95	17.99

TABLE 30—Continued

Category	Test	LIKES								DISLIKES							
		Means				Standard Deviation				Means				Standard Deviation			
		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors	
		Prob. (N=182)	Topic. (N=88)	Prob. (N=66)	Chron. (N=129)	Prob. (N=182)	Topic. (N=88)	Prob. (N=66)	Chron. (N=129)	Prob. (N=182)	Topic. (N=88)	Prob. N=66)	Chron. (N=129)	Prob. (N=182)	Topic. (N=88)	Prob. (N=68)	Chron. (N=129)
Manipulation	Pre	46.69	44.13	40.09	45.71	18.07	20.16	17.23	18.71	24.34	26.64	27.97	23.89	17.46	17.60	18.86	16.64
	End	55.18	47.60	50.40	48.26	18.50	20.77	19.53	19.37	21.59	23.29	25.16	20.71	16.76	16.49	17.07	15.29
Business	Pre	57.31	62.26	60.71	60.59	20.80	22.47	21.99	24.95	13.58	13.63	12.51	14.75	13.49	13.73	10.56	17.18
	End	65.81	64.36	67.61	62.65	23.72	23.95	23.68	25.10	15.60	12.69	11.29	13.20	17.13	13.01	8.71	16.63
Sports	Pre	59.04	55.49	53.74	57.54	23.88	23.98	25.39	22.82	19.19	18.74	21.00	17.54	18.97	16.82	20.76	16.38
	End	65.31	69.13	61.77	62.54	23.68	24.90	23.58	24.15	18.84	18.75	18.04	12.17	19.78	18.99	16.62	12.78
Biology	Pre	46.61	41.92	36.91	44.47	27.15	25.89	27.06	25.31	23.95	24.31	29.86	23.15	23.29	19.60	26.50	20.99
	End	54.39	46.24	49.42	48.08	29.11	26.38	29.13	30.48	22.96	23.35	27.44	21.41	22.99	20.52	25.55	19.74
Physical science	Pre	51.23	39.76	39.34	59.35	29.72	27.31	29.25	27.81	21.81	24.48	29.49	14.90	22.88	22.75	25.16	18.87
	End	58.68	46.46	51.92	61.53	28.89	27.56	31.30	29.50	20.40	23.01	27.51	14.01	21.35	23.30	29.64	18.31
Mathematics	Pre	32.06	27.04	27.53	38.89	27.75	24.01	25.38	29.73	41.00	45.04	42.60	35.13	31.24	31.93	29.83	30.13
	End	38.75	27.27	40.70	39.79	32.71	27.53	30.15	31.88	40.45	47.32	36.91	34.32	32.17	33.55	29.28	30.43

*All scores are given in percentage.

seemed little affected by their classroom activities (Table 24, page 164). Most of the students in both groups read the "funnies" each day and about half of them read the news. Only a few looked at the editorials or the columnists, and 50 per cent of the chronological group had no idea about the political viewpoint expressed by the paper they read.

3. *The students using the chronological approach made more growth in the amount of information about American history at their disposal than the students in the paired problems group, and they also made more growth in their knowledge of contemporary affairs.—* The data collected show that the chronological approach is particularly useful in the acquisition of information. Both the *Cooperative American History Test* and the *Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test,* the two tests used to evaluate knowledge and understanding, are primarily tests of factual information; and inferences as to the superiority of one approach over the other in developing knowledge can be drawn from these tests if one accepts the assumption that knowledge is dependent on the ability to recall facts. The chronological group not only made significant growth in the amount of factual information about American history which they possessed (Table 26, page 166), but they also made a significant growth in their knowledge of contemporary political and socio-economic affairs (Table 27, page 166). While the problems group made no significant change in their score on the *Cooperative American History Test,* or in their knowledge of recent political events, they too, knew more about contemporary socio-economic events at the end of the year than they did at the beginning.

4. *The students in the problems-approach group made more growth toward a liberal point of view than the students in the chronological group.—*The students in the problems group became significantly more liberal in every area in which attitudes were appraised except one (Table 36). While the students in the paired group were more liberal to start with and became more liberal during the year, the change was not great enough in any one area to be statistically significant. Both groups were more consistent in their point of view at the end of the year than they had been at the beginning; and while the change in their total value pattern was toward a significantly more consistent viewpoint, this was true for each group in only one area. Like the senior groups, the growth toward liberalism seems due to more certainty rather than less conservatism. This fact is particularly noticeable in the chronological group, where ambivalent attitudes seem to have developed, causing the students to become more liberal and at the same time more conservative (Table 29, page 169).

TABLE 31

COMPARISON OF THE GROWTH IN INTERESTS DURING THE SCHOOL YEAR OF THE
STUDENTS IN TWO SENIOR GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS AND TOPICAL APPROACHES
AND TWO JUNIOR GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS AND CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACHES
AS SHOWN BY THEIR PERFORMANCE ON THE CONTEMPORARY AFFAIRS TEST,
FORMS 1940 AND 1941

AREAS OF INTEREST AND GROUPS	No.	MEANS		STANDARD DEVIATION		r	DIFFERENCE IN MEANS	STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFERENCE	CRITICAL RATIO	No. OF ITEMS
		Form 1940	Form 1941	Form 1940	Form 1941					
Political Events										
Senior Problems....	146	14.38	14.34	6.16	6.80	0.62	-0.04	0.46	......	30
Topical......	68	10.38	10.94	6.41	5.11	0.51	0.56	0.71	......	
Junior Problems....	66	12.27	11.24	5.77	6.45	0.64	-1.03	0.64	1.61*	
Chronological	51	14.33	18.69	6.67	6.38	0.49	4.36	0.92	4.74	
Socio-economic Events										
Senior Problems....	146	7.37	13.29	5.58	5.97	0.53	5.92	0.46	12.87	30
Topical......	68	4.91	9.65	4.16	5.56	0.50	4.74	0.60	7.90	
Junior Problems....	66	5.61	11.48	5.04	5.03	0.68	5.87	0.50	11.74	
Chronological	51	6.33	16.10	4.85	6.55	0.48	9.77	0.84	11.63	
Science-Medicine										
Senior Problems....	146	4.43	4.32	2.86	3.07	0.38	0.11	.....	......	15
Topical.....	68	4.01	3.50	3.12	1.50	0.16	0.51	.....	......	
Junior Problems....	66	2.74	3.58	2.32	2.89	0.47	0.84	0.34	2.47	
Chronological	51	2.91	6.46	2.15	3.12	-0.01	3.55	0.53	6.70	
Literature										
Senior Problems....	146	3.86	3.82	2.80	2.73	0.44	-0.04	.....	......	15
Topical.....	68	3.09	3.97	2.74	2.58	0.31	0.88	0.38	2.32	
Junior Problems....	66	2.65	3.11	2.21	2.40	0.28	0.46	.....	......	
Chronological	51	2.17	4.38	2.31	2.55	-0.08	2.21	0.50	4.42	
Fine Arts										
Senior Problems....	146	4.35	4.84	2.64	2.62	0.36	0.49	.....	......	15
Topical......	68	4.82	4.18	2.74	2.05	0.14	-0.64	.....	......	
Junior Problems....	66	3.79	3.58	2.50	2.34	0.41	-0.21	.....	......	
Chronological	51	4.35	6.25	2.63	2.85	0.16	1.90	0.48	3.96	
Amusements										
Senior Problems....	146	11.54	8.22	3.22	3.40	0.43	-3.32	0.29	11.45*	15
Topical......	68	10.25	7.41	4.66	3.47	0.42	-2.84	0.58	4.90*	
Junior Problems....	66	10.17	7.12	3.65	3.49	0.63	-3.05	0.38	8.03*	
Chronological	51	12.03	8.90	3.51	3.52	0.37	-2.63	0.55	4.78*	
Totals										
Senior Problems....	146	43.94	46.30	16.84	19.22	0.73	2.36	1.11	2.13	120
Topical......	68	35.44	37.28	15.20	15.08	0.66	1.84	1.51	1.22	
Junior Problems....	66	35.38	38.03	14.10	17.88	0.77	2.65	1.41	1.81	
Chronological	51	40.34	59.56	16.19	19.03	0.45	19.12	2.61	7.33	

* Loss rather than gain.

5. *The students in the problems group were more interested in school activities than the students in the chronological group and during the year significantly increased their liking for school, while the students in the paired group were more interested in out-of-school activities.*—While the approach used in the teaching of the social studies probably has little or no relation to the interest which students have in school subjects other than the social studies, it is interesting to note that the students in the problems group showed more liking than the chronological students for eight of the areas of school life in which interests were evaluated (Table 30, pages 172-73). In five areas there was practically no difference, while only in the physical sciences did the chronological group show more interest than the problems group. Interest in the social studies was less in both groups than that expressed for most of the other school subjects, and, in spite of the assumption that the approach should make a difference, there is no conclusive evidence that students like social studies better when it is taught by one approach than when it is taught by the other (Table 32, page 177). The students in the chronological group were more interested in contemporary affairs, attended more movies, and listened to more radio programs than the students in the paired group; and their interest in contemporary literature, fine arts, medicine, and science as well as political and social events increased significantly during the year (Table 31, page 175). There is no indication, however, that this group read, listened to the radio, or attended movies with any more discrimination than the students in the problems group (Table 33, page 178, and Table 34, page 180). Evidently variables other than the approach used are operative in determining the degree of interest which students have in social events and civic life.

General Conclusions

That more growth in the behaviors considered necessary for effective citizenship took place in the students using the problems approach than in the students using the topical approach is evident from the data. That a great difference in behavior did not develop between the junior groups as a result of the use of the chronological and problems approaches is also evident. Although the data do not give the reasons for the greater success of the problems approach with senior students than with junior, they do suggest several hypotheses. One is that the problems approach is more suited to older students. While further research is necessary to prove or refute this hypothesis, the authors are inclined to doubt its validity because they have seen the problems approach used with considerable success with much younger

TABLE 32

COMPARISON OF SCHOLASTIC INTERESTS OF STUDENTS IN THE PROBLEMS, TOPICAL, AND CHRONOLOGICAL GROUPS AS REVEALED BY THEIR SCORES ON THE INTEREST INDEX, 8.2a*

SCHOLASTIC INTERESTS AND GROUPS	No.	MEANS		STANDARD DEVIATIONS		r	DIFFERENCE IN MEANS	STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFERENCE	CRITICAL RATIO
		Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test				
Social Studies—Likes									
Senior Problems	182	38.79	42.75	24.58	27.29	0.65	3.96	1.62	2.44
Topical	88	39.32	40.23	27.05	31.08	0.84	0.91	1.80	.....
Junior Problems	66	32.58	40.76	23.89	24.92	0.46	8.18	3.12	2.62
Chronological	129	42.23	41.69	26.98	29.60	0.74	-0.54	1.81	.....
Social Studies—Dislikes									
Senior Problems	182	25.49	26.21	23.64	25.06	0.53	0.72	1.75	.....
Topical	88	23.47	24.43	23.65	24.67	0.69	0.96	2.01	.....
Junior Problems	66	25.00	23.86	19.07	20.14	0.56	1.14	2.27	0.50
Chronological	129	23.70	23.90	20.24	22.34	0.60	0.20	1.68	.....
Totals—Likes									
Senior Problems	182	48.60	54.95	14.22	15.49	0.59	6.35	1.00	6.35
Topical	88	46.14	48.30	16.56	25.18	0.86	2.16	1.47	1.47
Junior Problems	66	41.44	51.74	16.75	18.85	0.60	10.30	1.97	5.23
Chronological	129	48.43	47.94	16.48	16.37	0.78	-0.46	0.96	.....
Totals—Dislikes									
Senior Problems	182	23.16	22.75	15.88	14.67	0.62	0.41	0.99	.....
Topical	88	24.20	23.52	14.32	14.44	0.74	0.68	1.23	.....
Junior Problems	66	26.89	23.56	15.97	15.06	0.68	3.33	1.53	2.18
Chronological	129	23.28	21.69	14.13	14.69	0.62	1.59	1.10	1.45

* All scores are given in percentage.

groups. Then, too, the mean age of the senior-problems group was only nine months higher than the mean age of the junior-problems group, a difference hardly great enough to affect the ability to solve problems.

A second hypothesis is that the problems approach is more adaptable to economic and social issues than to American history and therefore is better suited to the subject matter usually included in senior social-studies courses than to the material included in United States history. The conception of the problems approach given in Chapter 5 would, however, be in disagreement with this hypothesis, for while the very essence of the problems approach is that all learning centers about the solution of a contemporary problem, sound conclusions cannot be drawn until all the pertinent facts, including historical materials which bear upon the problem, have been gathered and analyzed. This should require a functional knowledge of American history. The significant changes in behavior resulting from the use of the chronological approach, however, should not be minimized. The contribution of the chronological approach to the understanding of the past and present and to effectiveness in the use of research techniques is significant and indicates its value in social education.

That the problems approach calls for superior teaching is a third hypothesis which may be advanced to account for the superior achievement of the senior students. The growth accomplished by the senior groups was undoubtedly due in part to the superior skill of the teachers handling the senior groups. The teachers of the senior-problems groups, while not considered satisfactory when judged before the study started, were thought to be better than satisfactory a year later, as were also the teachers of the topical groups. On the other hand, neither the junior-problems teachers nor the teachers using the chronological approach were considered wholly satisfactory when the study ended. Although more evidence needs to be gathered on the

TABLE 33

COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF MOVIES SEEN BY THE STUDENTS IN THE GROUPS USING THE PROBLEMS, TOPICAL, AND CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACHES

GROUPS	No.	TOTAL SEEN		LIKED		INDIF- FERENT		DISLIKED	
		m	σ	m	σ	m	σ	m	σ
Senior Problems.......	182	35.93	19.79	24.09	13.99	10.76	8.07	2.71	2.87
Topical........	88	37.73	19.58	25.57	15.03	10.20	7.76	2.35	2.79
Junior Problems.......	66	26.52	16.35	20.61	13.71	5.50	5.49	09	1.41
Chronological ..	129	36.40	20.79	26.01	16.93	9.65	8.52	1.81	2.19
								1.	

relative merit of the problems and chronological approaches and on the effectiveness of the problems approach with younger students, it is the opinion of the authors that the competence of the teacher is a more important factor in the use of the problems approach than either the maturity of the students or the subject matter used.

The data collected on these groups would also indicate that growth in one behavior does not take place as a by-product of another objective. If growth is to take place, teachers and students must accept the objective as a desirable educational goal and experiences must be planned and materials selected with the objective in mind. The achievement and growth made by the senior group using the problems approach were due in part to the fact that the teachers and the students were equally concerned that good work habits and skills, sound thinking, knowledge of the culture, and desirable social attitudes be developed. The educational activities were directed toward these goals. Although individuals react to a situation as total organisms and although their attitudes and interests as well as their knowledge and skill are a part of the result of an educational experience, learning may be one-sided or even undesirable unless activities are so planned that as much attention is given to the kinds of attitudes, interests, and thinking which are being developed as to the information which is being acquired.

Recommendations for Educational Practices and Classroom Procedures

The overall superior growth which the students in the senior groups using the problems approach made in the behaviors evaluated, as compared with that of the students in the topical approach, and the growth made by the juniors using the problems approach in critical thinking, liberal attitudes, and academic interests warrant a more extensive use of the problems approach in social-studies instruction and in general education. This does not imply that there should be no topical units or that history courses organized chronologically should not be offered; there is need for both. The progress made by the students in the groups where these approaches were used justifies their continued use in the secondary schools. This, as demonstrated by the study, is especially true of the chronological approach. However, more use should be made of the problems approach than is now customary if schools are to accomplish their main function of helping youth develop desirable behavior patterns which will enable them to participate effectively in a democratic society.

The apathy and dislike for the social studies expressed by all the groups should be of concern to all social-studies teachers. If interests

TABLE 34
A Comparison of the Number of Radio Programs Listened to and Liked by the Students in the Groups Using the Problems, Topical, and Chronological Approaches

TYPE OF RADIO PROGRAMS	MEANS				STANDARD DEVIATIONS			
	Seniors		Juniors		Seniors		Juniors	
	Prob-lems (N=140)	Top-ical (N=69)	Prob-lems (N=66)	Chrono-logical (N=129)	Prob-lems (N=140)	Top-ical (N=69)	Prob-lems (N=66)	Chrono-logical (N=129)
Mixed programs.......	8.58	8.50	8.45	8.52	3.75	4.13	4.36	3.34
Serials...............	7.30	7.50	8.18	7.97	5.65	4.43	4.16	4.99
Crime and courts......	4.49	4.75	4.49	4.80	2.24	2.20	2.40	2.32
Drama..............	6.09	5.66	4.35	5.45	3.13	3.12	3.26	3.20
Historical and patriotic	1.38	1.53	1.38	1.53	1.34	1.13	0.96	1.11
Religious.............	0.83	0.83	0.86	0.74	0.66	0.72	0.71	0.62
Science..............	1.55	1.32	0.74	1.58	1.71	2.79	0.85	1.72
Classical music........	6.39	5.61	2.99	4.04	4.81	4.64	3.46	1.72
Dance music.........	9.81	10.69	5.61	9.61	4.98	5.04	5.28	4.80
Folk music..........	2.45	3.02	2.97	2.76	2.00	2.03	2.26	2.31
News and commentators	5.37	5.27	4.46	4.60	3.66	3.43	3.05	3.20
People, places, events..	2.49	2.79	2.33	2.48	2.16	1.36	1.18	1.46
Questions and answers..	4.44	4.25	4.89	4.23	2.87	2.70	2.85	2.81
Discussion...........	2.02	1.66	1.29	1.44	2.00	1.63	1.17	1.37
Talks on various topics.	2.38	2.34	2.15	1.82	2.08	2.63	1.90	1.82
Sports..............	3.58	3.40	3.49	3.63	2.13	2.12	2.03	2.04
Education.	0.87	1.06	1.08	0.93	0.77	0.97	0.85	0.82
Total programs checked	121.80	128.04	93.48	105.78	77.61	52.71	24.47	50.23
Programs liked........	61.74	60.36	53.86	55.08	27.23	24.71	29.75	22.98
Hours per day spent at radio.......	3.48	3.80	3.02	3.96	2.11	1.48	2.13	1.99

are important as directive and selective agents, channeling activities and making individuals sensitive to certain elements in the environment and unaware of others, then the small amount of interest expressed for the social studies becomes a serious matter. Since education for effective citizenship is the primary function of the school, social-

TABLE 35
COMPARISON OF THE MAGAZINES READ IN SEPTEMBER AND MAY BY
THE JUNIOR GROUP (N = 129) USING THE CHRONOLOGICAL APPROACH

MAGAZINES	SEPTEMBER			MAY			READ REGULARLY	
	R* (%)	O (%)	S (%)	R (%)	O (%)	S (%)	Difference in Per- centages	Critical Ratio
Popular Weeklies								
Saturday Evening Post.....	19	26	20	18	25	19	−1	....
Collier's.................	12	22	18	10	26	20	−2	....
Liberty..................	5	27	20	7	26	23	2	....
Popular Monthlies...........								
Ladies' Home Journal......	12	13	11	15	16	12	3	0.71
Good Housekeeping........	15	11	15	16	16	16	1	....
McCall's.................	9	12	15	12	10	12	3	0.87
American Magazine........	9	5	13	10	12	16	1	....
Cosmopolitan.............	10	9	14	11	5	17	1	....
Woman's Home Companion.	7	12	11	8	10	14	1	....
Redbook.................	5	5	12	3	8	18	2	....
Picture Magazines								
Life.....................	49	31	3	55	21	5	6	0.96
Look....................	16	34	5	19	34	10	3	0.63
Pic.....................	8	23	6	9	26	11	1	....
Click...................	9	19	10	6	26	16	−3	0.92
Nonfiction Weeklies								
Time....................	11	24	13	9	29	23	−2	0.63
Newsweek...............	6	10	12	9	19	9	−3	0.92
Nation..................	....	2	5	....	6	10	....	....
Monthly Reviews								
National Geographic.......	8	15	9	18	15	8	10	2.40
Reader's Digest...........	29	29	12	30	27	9	1	....
Harper's.................	2	4	7	2	4	10	....	....
Current History...........	....	2	8	3	5	9	3	2.00
Forum..................	....	2	3	2	1	11	2	1.65
Atlantic Monthly..........	....	2	8	3	2	10	3	2.00
American Mercury........	1	2	5	1	2	9	....	....
Commentator.............	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Classroom Magazines								
American Observer........	19	5	3	22	5	4	3	0.60
Scholastic...............	9	21	8	15	21	12	6	1.51
Current Events...........	2	2	7	6	6	10	4	1.65
Weekly News Review......	....	3	6	2	....	9	2	1.65
Pathfinder...............	2	2	9	2	4	13	....	....

*R—Reads regularly; i.e., from two thirds to all of the issues during the past three months.
O—Reads occasionally; i.e., from one third to two thirds of the issues during the past three months.
S—Reads seldom; i.e., fewer than one third of the issues during the past three months.

studies teachers have a heavy responsibility to stimulate in youth an
interest in social, political, and economic problems that will carry
over into adult life; otherwise, the next generation may be as apathetic
toward social problems as the Lynds found the inhabitants of "Middle-
town" or as Bell found the out-of-school youth in Maryland. More
opportunity for pupil-teacher planning and for group activity in the

TABLE 36

COMPARISON OF THE GROWTH IN LIBERALISM AND CONSISTENCY MADE BY THE STUDENTS IN THE TWO JUNIOR GROUPS USING THE CHRONOLOGICAL AND PROBLEMS APPROACHES AS SHOWN BY THEIR SCORES ON THE SCALE OF BELIEFS TEST, 4.21–4.31*

BEHAVIORS EVALUATED	MEANS				STANDARD DEVIATION				DIFFERENCE IN MEANS		r		STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFERENCE		CRITICAL RATIO	
	Problems (N=66)		Chronological (N=51)		Problems (N=66)		Chronological (N=51)		Problems	Chronological	Problems	Chronological	Problems	Chronological	Problems	Chronological
	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test	Pre-Test	End-Test								
Liberalism																
Democracy	56.44	58.18	62.70	66.42	13.10	11.31	10.93	11.48	1.74	3.72	0.62	0.65	1.32	1.32	1.32	2.82
Economic relations	48.48	55.98	58.19	58.77	16.50	16.70	16.60	15.71	7.50	0.58	0.69	0.47	1.61	2.33	4.66	....
Labor-unemployment	52.65	58.33	54.36	61.13	17.01	16.96	14.72	17.38	5.68	6.77	0.81	0.49	1.29	2.29	4.40	2.96
Race	65.38	74.39	61.13	64.17	21.14	23.63	21.70	23.74	9.01	3.04	0.64	0.51	2.35	3.16	3.83	0.96
Nationalism	44.70	50.23	51.52	54.85	11.20	13.52	11.46	14.15	5.53	3.33	0.56	0.61	1.45	1.62	3.81	2.06
Militarism	44.92	49.77	48.28	52.79	12.92	15.98	14.19	15.95	4.85	4.51	0.67	0.57	1.49	1.97	3.26	2.29
Consistency																
Democracy	50.73	54.58	56.72	59.56	14.59	13.21	14.36	15.02	3.85	2.84	0.25	0.63	2.11	1.77	1.82	1.60
Economic relations	47.27	51.58	55.05	53.68	14.58	14.73	12.54	16.29	4.31	-1.37	0.44	0.31	1.90	2.41	2.27	0.57
Labor-unemployment	51.65	56.96	51.72	62.79	15.87	16.87	14.93	18.08	5.31	11.07	0.40	0.39	2.21	2.58	2.40	4.29
Race	62.42	73.12	59.85	64.85	22.83	18.32	21.40	20.99	10.70	5.00	0.37	0.39	2.88	3.28	3.72	1.52
Nationalism	42.81	48.12	49.56	55.44	12.21	13.40	12.76	17.10	5.31	5.88	0.27	0.58	1.91	1.99	2.78	2.95
Militarism	47.65	54.12	54.17	58.87	13.07	14.63	13.78	17.66	6.47	4.70	0.17	0.45	2.20	2.35	2.94	2.00
Totals																
Liberalism	51.74	56.21	55.83	60.25	10.43	10.75	9.63	11.30	4.47	4.42	0.74	0.69	0.93	1.17	4.81	3.78
Conservatism	25.83	26.67	28.77	31.52	8.73	8.15	6.98	7.85	0.84	2.75	0.55	0.65	0.98	0.88	0.86	3.13
Uncertainty	23.33	19.02	17.11	10.44	14.21	12.18	11.49	9.55	4.31	6.67	0.57	0.67	1.52	1.22	2.84	5.47
Consistency	48.88	54.42	53.28	59.17	10.44	9.89	10.59	13.89	5.54	5.89	0.46	0.68	1.31	1.45	4.23	4.06

* All scores are given in percentage.

classroom, more use of community resources and nontextbook materials, more attention to problems which are real and meaningful to adolescents and about which they can do something should make the social studies stimulating and inspire youth to work actively.

Far too little emphasis was given in the classes participating in the study to the development of the skills needed in reading newspapers and to the habit of reading the better monthly and weekly magazines. If the practice exhibited in these groups is true for secondary schools as a whole, then more emphasis needs to be placed on newspaper and magazine reading as skills needed by effective citizens in a democratic society. The importance of public opinion in directing the course of events in a democratic society makes it necessary not only that the citizens of a democracy know how to find accurate information but also that they habitually use reliable sources in formulating their opinions. The newspaper reading habits and skills developed in school and the magazine reading habits formed by students determine to a great degree the reading habits they will have as adults.

Teachers who are satisfied with the approach they are using and teachers who are experimenting with new techniques and curriculum revision are all obligated to evaluate as objectively as possible the growth which students are making in all the objectives which the school considers desirable. If it is true, as several recent research studies have pointed out, that teachers tend to teach the things which they test, then social attitudes, research techniques, interests, and reflective thinking need to be as carefully evaluated as are knowledges and skills. Attitudes and interests are important in determining the kind of citizen a student is to be and the direction of his life's activities.

The ability to think straight is imperative for democratic citizens. The interest exhibited by both students and teachers in the test results and in the interpretation of the scores in terms of individual strengths and weaknesses shows the tremendous motivating force which evaluation techniques have when used in diagnosing student needs. The tests developed by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study and used throughout this study made possible the appraisal of many objectives for which formerly there were no valid and reliable tests. Some of these techniques are still too complicated for classroom use unless machine scoring is available. Although simpler techniques need to be developed and other methods explored, the responsibility of the teacher for regularly appraising as objectively as possible the growth which his students are making cannot be avoided. Such appraisal keeps clearly before the eyes of both students and teachers the objectives toward which they both are working.

7

TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING: PREPLANNING

The Rôle of Preplanning in Democratic Teaching

ATTEMPTS TO base the social-studies curriculum more directly on per-
sonal-social needs and to make classroom instruction more democratic
have focused attention on the importance of preplanning. Teachers
who base their programs on problems or topics and who employ
student-teacher planning in classroom instruction are sometimes criti-
cized for being superficial, inaccurate, and biased. Such faults, when
they exist, can be corrected by greater care in preplanning. The degree
of preplanning necessary generally varies directly with the amount of
flexibility provided in the program of study; the greater the flexibility,
the greater the amount of preplanning usually required for effective
teaching.

*Preplanning is the preparation made by the teacher or committees of
teachers previous to actual teaching.*—It involves an anticipation of the
needs and questions of young people, an analysis and organization of
the factual content to be used, the development of broad understand-
ings and generalizations to use in guiding instruction, a clear concep-
tion of the objectives to be achieved, a collection of materials and a
knowledge of available resources, plans for classroom activities, and
the development of procedures for evaluation. The kind of preplan-
ning necessary to successful teaching depends on the methods of instruc-
tion and the materials to be used. Preplanning usually consists of one
of the following:

1. Constructing resource units
2. Making teaching units
3. Preparation for using a textbook
4. Developing files of material and bibliographies

Resource Units

The resource or source unit was devised to meet the needs of teachers
who believed that students should participate in planning the units
they would study and the activities and learning experiences in which

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they would engage, but who felt incompetent to plan effectively with their students unless adequate preplanning had been done. Although a few source units had been developed previously, it was at the Rocky Mountain Workshop in the summer of 1938 that their use became recognized and established. The source unit was defined as "a preliminary exploration of a broad problem or topic to discover its teaching possibilities." Units were prepared in such areas as "Conservation of Natural Resources," "Housing," "Orientation," "Democracy," and "Safety."

During the year following the summer workshop, the General Education Board called two conferences to discuss the teaching of contemporary problems in the secondary school. At these conferences the source-unit technique was discussed favorably, but it was recommended that its name be changed to *resource unit* because of the possible confusion in meaning between *source units* and *source materials*.[1]

Resource units were constructed in several local and college workshops, including those of the Stanford Social Education Investigation,[2] during the next few years. As the resource-unit technique developed, published units began to appear, such as *Paying for the War*,[3] issued by the National Council for the Social Studies. The most extensive group of published resource units is the "Problems in American Life" series, jointly issued by the National Council for the Social Studies and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. This series, numbering twenty-two units, was published between 1942 and 1945. Each unit was prepared jointly by a recognized social scientist, who prepared an analysis of the basic content in the area, and a master social-studies teacher, who prepared the teaching aids.[4] The titles of the units are:

1. *How Our Government Raises and Spends Money*
2. *American Youth Faces the Future*
3. *Man and His Machines*
4. *Recreation and Morale*
5. *Race and Cultural Relations*
6. *Democracy vs. Dictatorship*
7. *The American Family*
8. *Agriculture*
9. *Crime*
10. *Economic Problems of the Post-War World*
11. *War*
12. *Making Our Government Efficient*
13. *Population*
14. *Public Opinion in War and Peace*
15. *International Organization after the War*
16. *America's Schools*
17. *The Health of a Nation*
18. *Politics in Action*
19. *The American Standard of Living*
20. *The American Way of Business*
21. *Urban and Rural Living*
22. *Motor Vehicle Transportation in American Life*

A manual for teachers entitled *Using a Resource Unit* accompanied the series.[5]

The resource unit provides a reservoir from which teachers can draw suggestions and materials for making a teaching unit or preparing for student-teacher planning. It has been compared to a supply cupboard from which a cook draws materials to prepare a meal. While this analogy is not too apt, it does indicate that the resource unit provides a variety of materials and suggestions in a form readily usable by a teacher in planning a unit. A resource unit differs from a teaching unit in that (1) it is made for teacher rather than student use; (2) it contains many more suggestions than can be used by any one class; (3) it covers a broad area from which materials can be drawn for the study of specific topics or problems; (4) it gives a number of possibilities for achieving the same objectives; and (5) it is not organized as a classroom teaching guide. In other words, it is extensive rather than specific, suggestive rather than definitive, and flexible rather than rigid. It encourages creative adaptation by the teacher to meet individual needs and democratic planning in the classroom.

The Parts of a Resource Unit (See sample resource unit in Appendix I)

A resource unit usually contains the following parts:

1. *A title.*– The title of a resource unit may be expressed as a theme, "Using Leisure Time Wisely"; as a topic, "Recreation in the United States"; or as a problem, "How Can the Use of Leisure Time Be Improved?" Usually resource units cover broad areas rather than specific problems or narrow topics, and the title should indicate this.

2. *Analysis of the area.*–Each unit in the "Problems in American Life" series had an extended analysis of the area covered by the unit, including basic background information for the teacher. These analyses were written by social scientists who were recognized authorities in each area treated. It is probably inadvisable to include such analyses in resource units prepared by teachers for local use. The inclusion of the extensive analysis in the "American Life" series resulted in limiting the activities, bibliography, and evaluation techniques which could be included. Teacher-made resource units should contain as many rich and practical suggestions as possible in order to be of maximum helpfulness in preparing for democratic classroom procedures.

3. *The statement of significance.*–The statement of significance indicates: (1) the social significance of the area covered by the unit; (2) its relation to student needs; (3) its contribution to the development of effective citizens and the achievement of democratic values; and (4) the placement of content and experiences from the area in the program of study.

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4. *Statement of anticipated outcomes.*—This part of the resource unit contains a statement of specific objectives defined in terms of behaviors. These are generally organized or classified. The participants in the Investigation usually classified them as: (1) understandings; (2) value patterns—attitudes, appreciations, and interests; and (3) habits, skills, and abilities. Generalizations may also be included to assist in the selection and organization of content. In the statement of objectives for resource units, care should be exercised to provide maximum guidance to teachers in the selection of subject matter, materials, and activities; in the direction of learning experiences; and in the evaluation of student achievement.

5. *Suggested problems and questions.*—This section defines the content of the area covered by the resource unit. In teacher-made units, it is usually the only analysis of the unit included. Some resource units use an outline for this purpose. However, the content of the area can be more clearly indicated in relation to classroom instruction by stating the problems and questions which are important and about which students are likely to be concerned and to use these as the basis for organizing materials. A careful analysis is made of the unit area in order to include the problems and questions which offer the greatest promise of satisfying the needs of students and of contributing to the development of the behaviors indicated in the objectives. More problems and questions are included than can be used in any one teaching unit, and since those included are suggestions, it is expected that teachers will modify and change them.

6. *Suggested activities.*—Activities are the heart of a resource unit. They should be varied, extensive, and directed toward the collection of information on the problems and questions and the achievement of the objectives formulated for the unit. Activities should be selected carefully and organized so as to be most helpful to teachers. This may be done in several ways:

a) According to activity types. When this method of classification is used, activities are grouped according to excursions to be taken; interviews to be conducted; diagrams, charts, graphs, and posters to be made; themes, plays, and songs to be written; floor talks and panel discussions to be presented; movies to be seen; individual and group projects to be developed; and books and stories to be read.

b) According to objectives. Activities under this plan would be classified according to whether or not they were expected to contribute to the development of particular understandings, attitudes, skills, and abilities. For example, the activities suggested for developing the objective "To understand and appreciate the people of other races and

other cultures" might include: reading Wallace Stegner's *One America* because it is concerned with intergroup relations, Nora Waln's *The House of Exile* because it describes Chinese life sympathetically, and Florence Fitch's *One God* because it demonstrates religious tolerance; listening to music and observing art from other nations; and talks to the class by persons of other nationalities.

c) According to problems and questions. When the area covered in the resource unit is a large one, a useful classification is to group together the activities which contribute to the study of a subproblem or a topical question. For example, if the area is "The Health of the Nation," the activities might be organized around such problems as: How can we improve our health? How can we prevent disease? How can we make our community a healthier one? How can adequate medical care be provided for all the American people?

d) According to the steps in teaching a unit. This plan of organization groups together initiatory activities, such as pre-tests, outside speakers, current happenings, field trips, exhibits, motion pictures; developmental activities, such as reading, excursions, interviews, and the like; and culminating activities, such as themes, original plays and pageants, assembly programs, panel discussions, demonstrations, and programs of action based on the study of the unit.[6]

In the classification of activities, it is desirable always to group initiatory and culminating activities separately. Developmental activities then may be grouped according to types, objectives, or major problems and topics. The number of initiatory and culminating activities included in a resource unit need not be extensive, but the developmental activities should be rich and varied. All activities should be stated in specific rather than general terms. The purpose is to state activities clearly and operationally so that teachers who read them will be able to direct students in their performance. If a choice must be made, it is better to have fewer activities stated specifically than a more extensive list which is vague and general. The titles and sources of materials suggested for use should be cited as a part of the description of an activity.

All activities, regardless of how they are grouped, should be checked against the objectives. Activities, no matter how excellent, should not be included unless they contribute to the development of desirable personality characteristics as described in the objectives.

7. Suggested evaluation techniques and instruments.—The resource unit, unlike the teaching unit, contains a section on evaluation. This section should be based directly on the statement of objectives for the unit. There should be suggested ways of evaluating all the objectives

stated. In other words, techniques of evaluating understandings, attitudes, skills, and abilities are included. The techniques should be described fully enough so that a teacher will be able to use them effectively. Actual samples of evaluation instruments, as well as an annotated list of available commercial tests, should be included as a part of the unit.[7]

8. *Bibliography.*—The final section of a resource unit is a list of materials. This section may be divided into materials for pupil and for teacher use. Pupil materials may be divided according to the types of material cited. The bibliography of a resource unit should include not only reading materials, but also audio-visual aids and environmental resources. Annotations stating content and use are helpful. The annotation might also include the level of difficulty of the materials and the sources from which they may be secured. Materials should be selected that vary in difficulty, encourage self-dependence, and promote the expansion of interests and the development of competence in the location and use of accurate information.[8]

Making a Resource Unit

Making a resource unit is a difficult and time-consuming task; yet it is one of the most effective means of in-service education because it involves the thoughtful consideration of every aspect of the teaching process. All teachers planning to use resource units should have experience in making them. A resource unit contains such a wealth of material and it provides for so much flexibility in use that a teacher who has not had the experience of constructing one is likely to become confused and disheartened when trying to use one made by someone else. Mildred Biddick investigated the use which teachers in some of the Thirty Schools were making of the resource units prepared at the Rocky Mountain Workshop and concluded that participating in the making of resource units had "great merit" in introducing teachers to their use.[9]

Resource units may be constructed by individual teachers or by groups. The group method of construction is preferable because it divides the work and provides the contribution of a variety of points of view and backgrounds of knowledge and experience. If possible, teachers from several subject fields—e.g., literature, science, art, music, home economics—should coöperate with social-studies teachers in constructing resource units in order to include content, activities, and materials from all areas that contribute to the achievement of the desired objectives. The making of a resource unit provides both an excellent opportunity for teachers from different areas to work together on a

common problem and a reservoir from which they can draw suggestions that will facilitate correlation and integration.

The construction of a resource unit requires: (1) a knowledge of general objectives, the overall course of study, and the teaching materials available or obtainable; (2) an understanding of individual growth and development and the needs of boys and girls; (3) experience in using a variety of classroom procedures, activities, and evaluation techniques; (4) a knowledge of the area covered by the unit; (5) an extensive familiarity with available materials; and (6) an understanding of the nature of a resource unit and its function. Other resource units may be helpful in providing suggestions, but they should be used only as they make direct contributions to the unit being constructed. The general aim in making a resource unit is to provide the maximum assistance to teachers who wish to make their classrooms more democratic and their instruction more effective.

Revision of Resource Units

Resource units, once made, need constant revision to keep them up to date and improve their usefulness. If teachers keep records of their experiences in using resource units, the task of modification and revision is facilitated. The success or failure of certain activities and techniques, the degree of interest and understanding that resulted from the use of certain materials, the reactions of students to their work, new materials which have been found, and additional activities successfully used can be noted down from day to day in a journal or log of classroom teaching experiences. The journal is made more useful if actual anecdotes of student behavior are included. At the end of a particular topic or unit, a summary of what occurred and the teacher's evaluation of the student's success can be made.

A journal and report of units taught are most helpful in the modification of content and procedures and in subsequent preplanning. The teachers in the junior high schools of Pasadena, while participating in the Stanford Social Education Investigation, kept a journal during the first year that their new scope and sequence were being used. The journals were then used in modifying their units and in making plans for the next year. The time required for keeping a journal or writing up a unit that has been taught can be reduced by exercising care.

Using a Resource Unit

The resource unit may be used in textbook teaching, in the making of a teaching unit, and in preparing for student-teacher planning in the classroom. If a textbook is the basic material used, the resource unit

provides suggestions for supplementing it with activities and materials and gives assistance in evaluation. In the making of a teaching unit, the resource unit can be used to provide background and as a source of suggestions for objectives, content, activities, materials, and evaluation.

The resource unit is most useful in preparing for student-teacher planning. The teacher can secure a background in the area to be investigated with students and can select a variety of problems and questions, activities and materials that may be useful to the class. These rich resources give teachers greater competence and assurance in the direction of student-teacher planning. They make it possible for the teacher always to have available pertinent suggestions that can be made to the class; and they also provide a basis for checking the comprehensiveness, balance, and validity of the structure and content of the unit planned by the class.

Teaching Units

A teaching unit is a classroom guide for teaching an organized body of material. It differs from a resource unit in that it contains only the materials and activities which the teacher expects to use with a particular class, arranged in the order in which they are to be used. The unit can be written for students and placed in their hands or it can be written for teachers to use with their students. If student-teacher planning is used and students participate not only in the selection of the unit but also in choosing and organizing content and in planning the types of activities to be included, the teaching unit cannot be written until after the planning period. But if students do not share in the responsibility of planning their work, teaching units can be prepared in advance. When teachers first attempt unit teaching, it is usually desirable for them to use teaching units which have been carefully worked out in advance and which give them a feeling of security and confidence as they try out a new technique.

The first step in the preparation of a unit is to survey the content of the area to be studied. Then the possible content is considered in relation to units already studied and the units to follow in order to provide for articulation. Next, the possible content is analyzed in relation to general objectives, the interests and needs of the class, the characteristics of the school and the community, and current events which will help to motivate the study and relate it to contemporary living. After these things are considered and available materials are surveyed, the teacher is ready to begin to organize the unit. A typical teaching unit includes:

1. A statement of the specific objectives
2. The content to be covered, indicated by a topical outline, questions, or both
3. Activities and projects
4. Bibliography

The objectives should be specific, stated in behavioral form, and not too extensive. If a good list of general objectives has been prepared for the course, the unit objectives can be confined to a statement of a few key understandings and attitudes. Skills and abilities, also, should be listed when they are especially pertinent.

In some teaching units the content to be covered is stated in the form of a topical outline. If objectives have been stated as understandings, each understanding may become a main topic in the outline of content with subtopics indicating the areas that will need to be studied in order to develop the understanding. In other teaching units, the content is indicated by questions. Sometimes an outline is prepared for use as a guide in the formulation of questions and then is not included in the unit. A good procedure is to organize the questions directly in terms of the outline, each main topic in the outline becoming a major question with the subtopics becoming subquestions under it. Since the questions are to be used as study guides by students, they should be phrased clearly and directly and in a manner to stimulate students' interests and direct their collection of information.

The activities included in a teaching unit should be varied but brief. The purpose of these activities is to stimulate interest, suggest ways of collecting and reporting information, provide for individual differences in ability and interest, and indicate ways in which the understandings gained and the generalizations formed by individuals or groups in the class may be applied usefully. The activities included should be selected in terms of the objectives of the unit, the content covered, the materials available, the interests and abilities of the class, and the opportunities for school and community participation.

The references to be used by students in studying the unit may be placed after each major topic, in the margin and parallel to the outline, or at the end of the unit. The procedure followed depends on the maturity of the class and the degree to which they possess self-dependence. If a class has had little experience with using a variety of materials, it is more helpful to them to limit the number of materials listed, to place them adjacent to the topic on which they are to be used, and to give specific page references. If each student has a textbook, the material in the text bearing on the problems or questions can be listed first. As students develop more self-dependence, the number of

materials listed can be increased and the page references omitted. At an even more advanced stage of self-dependence, all the materials can be placed together at the end of the unit.

An important distinction should be made between teaching units which are designed for student use and those developed for teachers only. Teaching units which are to be used by the students as guide sheets, study sheets, or assignment sheets contain only the references which students can use, the outline which they are to cover, the questions they are to answer, the activities and projects they are to do. Teaching units for teachers' use only also include these items but in addition contain the motion pictures, slides, or film strips which are to be shown, the records to be played, illustrative material to be introduced in class, the tests to be given, and an additional bibliography for ready reference by the teacher.

Teaching units may be made by individual teachers or by groups of teachers. Many programs of study include sample units that can be modified by the teacher to fit her own classroom situation. The magazine *Social Education* sometimes contains teaching units, and they can be secured from various other sources. Each teacher, however, should gain experience in the making of units, and if units prepared by others are used, they should be modified to fit the particular class situation in which they are to be used. Teaching units also require continuous revision to keep them up to date.

Illustrative Teaching Unit

The teaching unit included in Appendix II was developed as a result of pupil-teacher planning in a senior problems course. The students had just finished studying a unit on health, and their interest in mental health and good human relationships led naturally into the study of the family. The unit was introduced by reading and discussing a number of short stories from the collection *Thicker Than Water*.[10] While the stories were being read and discussed, the questions and suggestions raised during the planning period were organized, reference materials were collected, and the teaching unit developed. Much preplanning had been done, and the teacher had several resource units on which to draw for activities, bibliography, and projects. The unit was mimeographed and placed in the hands of the students and consequently does not include the motion pictures and slides which were shown, illustrative materials which were read to the class, or the tests and evaluation devices which were used. Exact references are not given because the students were familiar with the use of reference material. The activities are stated in the form of assignments.

In addition to the general objectives which the students had stated at the beginning of the course, they decided that as a result of the study of this unit they hoped to understand:

1. The problems faced in growing up
2. The factors which make for happy and successful romance, courtship, and marriage
3. The importance of choosing a mate wisely
4. The legal aspects of marriage
5. The function of the family as a social institution in American life
6. The importance of environmental factors on the home
7. The necessity of adjusting financial, religious, recreational, and social difficulties within the home
8. The responsibilities which each member of the family has for maintaining happy family relationships
9. The family's responsibility toward children in the home
10. The importance of adequate training for the responsibilities of marriage and parenthood

They also hoped that as a result of the study of the unit they would increasingly:

1. Accept themselves as individuals but try to overcome personal difficulties
2. Value democratic relationships in the home
3. Share in family responsibilities
4. Respect romance, courtship, and marriage and maintain wholesome and sound social attitudes toward them
5. Recognize juvenile delinquency as a family and community problem and work to eliminate the conditions causing it

Preparation for Using a Textbook

The textbook is still the most commonly used material in social-studies instruction. It presents content and activities in a form already organized for teaching. The textbook, however, is written for nation-wide use and, consequently, requires careful preplanning for successful use in a particular class situation. Obviously, the first step in planning to use a text for the first time is to read it through carefully and make sure that the content is known and understood. This requires additional reading in other materials to secure depth in understanding and a proper orientation for the use of the text.

Planning is necessary to secure balance and comprehension in the use of a textbook. A common mistake is to spend too much time on the earlier part of a text, and then to rush hurriedly through or fail to cover the latter part of it. This practice is particularly unfortunate in teaching American and world history with textbooks arranged chronologically, because the material at the end of the book which treats the

recent past generally is relatively more important than that at the beginning. Imbalance and lack of comprehension can be avoided by examining the text to decide what material is essential and what can be given less emphasis or omitted altogether.

It is desirable when using a textbook to use the unit method rather than to work on the basis of daily assignments. However, if daily assignments are used, lesson plans should be prepared indicating the content to be covered, the outcomes to be achieved, and the teaching activities to be used. In planning to use a text, attention should be given to the use of the maps, graphs, charts, and pictures, and the questions, activities, and suggested materials for additional reading at chapter ends.

Good teachers are not satisfied with using only the material available in a textbook. An important part of preplanning is to discover content, material, and activities to supplement the text and to meet the personal and social needs of the students in the class and provide for individual differences and the development of self-dependence in the location and use of information.

Developing Files of Materials and Bibliographies

A good procedure for accumulating materials to be used in teaching is to establish a filing system. A manila folder can be labeled with the name of each topic, problem, chronological period, or culture which a teacher expects to teach; and pictures, maps, periodical articles, and the like can be collected. Once the file has been started, materials can be added from year to year. Students can assist in keeping up such a file, and samples of good student papers, maps, charts, etc., may be kept in it for use by subsequent classes. Such a file is of considerable value in teaching and is useful in preparing resource and teaching units. Some teachers keep resource units in file form so as to facilitate revision.

Teachers can also build up bibliographies that can later be used in teaching units. One of the first steps in preplanning for teaching a new field is to make a careful survey of all available materials in the classroom, school, and community libraries and to make a bibliography of those suitable for class use. If sufficient materials are not available, publishers' catalogues and periodicals, such as *Social Education* and *Social Studies,* can be utilized in making selections to recommend for purchase. An effective aid in preplanning is to make bibliographical cards for all new materials seen or heard about which may be useful in future teaching. If it is possible to examine new materials directly, evaluations of them can be noted on the cards. These bibliographical cards are then readily available in the preplanning process.

Preplanning as a Technique in In-Service Education

In a program of curriculum revision, one of the most important tasks is to have teachers prepared to perform effectively the new techniques required. Preplanning can be used to achieve this end. When a new social-studies program is organized by a school group that has not used the unit method previously, a group of short teaching units can be prepared by teachers working under the direction of someone who already knows how to make them. These units can be very definite, listing only a few materials, giving specific page references, and suggesting a limited number of activities that can be readily performed by the class. The techniques involved in using these units can be discussed with the teachers who are to use them, and the units can be mimeographed for the students. Such units provide almost as much security to teacher and students as the use of a single textbook; yet they encourage the use of a wider number of materials and activities and provide experience in the techniques of using units. Many of the schools working in the Investigation used this method for inducting new teachers into the program.

As teachers gain experience in democratic teaching, they can construct and use resource units. Competence in student-teacher planning comes through experience; but careful preplanning, including the construction of numerous resource units, is necessary if teachers are to have at their disposal the tools to plan effectively and wisely with their students. In-service programs were carried on in all the schools in the Investigation in order that teachers would know how to use resource units and how to plan effectively with their students. The teachers who came to the summer workshops became leaders in helping other teachers gain competence. The Pasadena junior high schools and Baker and West High Schools in Denver had scheduled conference periods every morning before school when groups of teachers met together to plan and discuss problems; the Salt Lake City schools had a weekly evening seminar in addition to their daily conference periods; and Seattle had a weekly meeting to which teachers outside the Investigation were invited.

As teachers work on units and the problems of instruction, they need to study continuously the nature of individual growth and development, the needs of their students, the characteristics of their community and the larger culture, and the democratic values they are trying to achieve. All effective preplanning rests on a knowledge of the child, the culture, the controlling values, and the characteristics of behavior necessary to effective living in the modern world.

8

TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING: UNIT DEVELOPMENT

IN SPITE OF the fact that the term *unit method* is commonly used in educational literature, there is no one way to teach a unit. Several different methods, such as the Morrison five-step method, the Morrison mastery technique, the Dalton or contract plan, the project method, the laboratory method, and the problem-solving approach, have been identified. Often teachers use a combination of techniques rather than one particular method. Since many of the techniques have much in common and differ only in detail or in the rigidity with which the procedure is followed, the term *unit method* is often used to describe what is really a composite of the best techniques from several methods.

Unit Methods

Dalton Plan

In the contract plan as originated at Dalton, Massachusetts, in 1919 by Helen Parkhurst, students work on a number of individual assignments known as *contracts* or *jobs*. Each student receives a job book consisting of a number of assignments or study guides. Under this plan, students work independently; each progresses according to his ability and his inclination, although each contract is planned to take about twenty days or one school month for the average student to complete. Each contract must be completed by a specific date and before the student can go on to a new one. Few group meetings are held or group projects undertaken, but each subject field has a specially equipped room or laboratory where students work and study under the direction of the subject teacher.[1] The chief merits of this plan lie in the emphasis placed on individual differences, in the development of initiative and responsibility on the part of each student, and in the encouragement given students to work up to their maximum capacity. Teachers with large classes find the plan difficult to operate, for it calls for individual contracts and for more individual instruction than teacher strength and time permit. The emphasis on individualism at the expense of coöperative enterprise has been decried by many and

has been corrected by the modifications incorporated by Miss Parkhurst at the Dalton School in New York.[2] While few schools have adopted the Dalton plan in its totality, much that is valuable in the plan has been incorporated into unit teaching.

Project Method

The project method, which differs little from the method used in any activity unit, has not been adopted so widely in secondary schools as in elementary schools. Kilpatrick identifies four types of projects: the producer's project, the consumer's project, the problem project, and the drill project. The producer's project would result in the production of something—a wagon, a victory garden, or a plan for beautifying the city; the consumer's project would result in the use or appreciation of something which has already been produced—the driving of an automobile, or the appreciation of a work of art; a problem project would consist in solving a problem; and a drill project would emphasize the acquisition of a skill, such as map reading or the use of a book.[3] Tryon says that "while no course of study in history, civics, or economics organized wholly in terms of projects has yet appeared, much use has been made of the project idea in organizing courses of study in these subjects. . . ."[4] More and more the units of work designed for students in the secondary schools contain enterprises calling for active rather than passive participation in learning experiences and reflect the influence of the project method in teaching a unit.

Laboratory Method

The laboratory method is predicated upon a classroom library of reference books, pamphlets, magazines, visual aids, maps, charts, construction materials, and other equipment necessary to change the traditional classroom into a workshop for individual and group study. The term is borrowed from science and implies the use of the scientific method in the study of social problems. The teacher becomes a guide and counselor; and supervised study, research, construction, and discussion replace memorization and recitation. The classroom library is necessary for all good social-studies teaching and does not exclude the use of the school library or community resources. While not used exclusively in teaching a unit, the laboratory method is employed by all teachers who are concerned with developing research habits and a scientific attitude in their students. Of the schools in the Stanford Social Education Investigation, the Menlo School and Junior College and the senior-problems course in Eugene High School probably made the most extensive and effective use of the laboratory method.

Morrison Method

Morrison's elaboration of Herbart's original plan for a recitation resulted in a popular method of unit teaching.[5] His five-step procedure calls for (1) exploration to discover what students already know and what they need to know; (2) presentation, an overview of the main ideas of the unit, by the teacher; (3) assimilation of information on the part of the students; (4) organization of information by the students into a logical and coherent outline of the unit; and (5) recitation —the reverse of the presentation of the unit in that the students either give the material orally before the class or write it in the form of an essay. Morrison would accompany each step of this procedure with his mastery technique. This may be stated as: (1) pre-test, (2) teach the principle involved, (3) test for the presence in the pupil of the desired learning, (4) diagnose the cause of failure when learning does not take place, (5) modify the teaching procedure in light of the diagnosis, (6) reteach, (7) retest, and (8) repeat the process as often as necessary until mastery has been achieved.[6] While this technique in its pure form is too complicated to be very practical in the classroom and too deadly to stimulate interest or learning in the student, many of the methods used today are a modification of it.

Problem-Solving

Problem-solving, as has been indicated, involves: (1) recognizing and defining the problem, (2) analyzing the problem into its basic elements and formulating hypotheses for possible solution, (3) collecting relevant data, (4) evaluating data, (5) organizing and interpreting data, (6) drawing conclusions, (7) verifying conclusions, and (8) applying conclusions or acting on the basis of conclusions drawn. Problem-solving implies a tension or concern which can only be resolved by a solution of the problem which is satisfactory to the student; it implies also several possible courses of action from which the student can make intelligent choices.

While the steps in problem-solving are inherent in any unit in which the problems approach is used, they need not be followed in one, two, three order. The definition of the problem may be arrived at inductively after all the basic elements have been analyzed; collecting, evaluating, interpreting, and organizing data may go on simultaneously; hypotheses may be discarded while data are being gathered and organized; and new data may be collected which will cause conclusions to be discarded and new ones drawn. The steps in reflective thinking —the techniques used in problem-solving—are also applicable to units used with the chronological and topical approaches.

In developing a unit, teachers need to draw on the best techniques from all these methods. The "unit method" which results may be thought of as consisting of three important stages: (1) initiating or introducing the unit; (2) developing or studying the unit; and (3) culminating or completing the unit. These three stages follow the steps in reflective thinking. During the initiatory stage, the historical period, topic, or problem which forms the unit is recognized, analyzed, and defined and a plan of action for studying the unit is made; during the developmental period, information is collected, verified, organized, and interpreted; and during the culmination of the unit, conclusions are formulated, verified, and applied.

Initiating a Unit

The first step in the development of a unit, regardless of the approach used, is the initiation or introduction. Before studying a historical period or topic or analyzing a problem into its component parts, it is important that the students as a group see the unit in perspective and have a common experience in being oriented to it. The teacher may have one or several reasons for this activity. He may want to arouse interest in the unit, to emphasize a certain phase of the problem or topic and direct it in a particular way, to sensitize the students to social implications in the unit, or to meet certain needs of the group which he feels are important. Whatever the specific purpose which the teacher has in mind when he selects the activity for introducing the unit, the initiating experience should serve five functions. It should (1) motivate the study of the unit by arousing student interest in it; (2) provide the students with a common background and orientation for their study; (3) raise questions and issues which call for further exploration and study; (4) lead to a recognition, definition, and analysis of the area to be studied; and (5) form the basis for the statement of objectives and the development of a plan of action for studying the unit. Unlike the overview in the presentation step of the Morrisonian procedure, the initiating phase of the unit does not present generalizations and conclusions. Rather, problems and issues are raised for which students will need to seek answers if their perplexities are to be resolved and their quest for knowledge satisfied.

The initiation of the unit is very important, and the enthusiasm and zeal with which the unit is attacked depend in large part on its successful initiation. Since it is so important, the teacher should assume major responsibility for this experience and should exert strong and positive leadership. He should plan the initiation carefully and in most cases should lead the discussion himself rather than rely on a

student chairman. A common group experience is essential as a background for the individual and committee activities which are to follow. It is important for unity and *esprit de corps* that a group be brought together often for common experiences, that they learn to think as a group, to give and take in class discussion, to see the unit as a whole, and to recognize the relation of their individual interests to the whole unit and to the interests of the class as a group.

Techniques Effective in Initiating a Unit

The steps involved in introducing a unit are (1) the sharing of a common experience by the class and (2) the development of a discussion, based on the common experience, which results in a plan of action for studying the unit. While the common experience used in the introduction of a unit may take various forms, its success depends on the skill with which the discussion that follows is directed. A number of types of experiences for use in introducing a unit are described below. The teacher will select the experience which he employs in introducing a particular unit on the basis of his purposes, the approach and type of unit to be introduced, and the materials and facilities available. As in other aspects of teaching, it is wise to build up rich resources in terms of possible experiences that may be used with a class and then to vary the experiences in the introduction of different units so as to add interest, zest, and adventure to the learning process.

1. *Pre-tests.*—In addition to the usual functions of an initiating experience, pre-tests can be used to diagnose student needs. If, for example, the unit deals with a controversial issue, the teacher may want to find out the attitudes of the students in his class before studying the unit. A test for this purpose need not be a long one, but it should sample the attitudes of the students on phases of the unit in which there is likely to be divergence of opinion. Attitude tests on various topics can now be purchased or teachers can develop their own tests to fit the unit which they are teaching.[7] Thurstone and his students, for example, have developed some thirty-five different scales to measure attitudes on social problems which have strong emotional appeal, such as war, race, religion, and communism.[8]

If teachers develop their own tests, they should remember that attitude tests are not information tests and they should avoid including items which call for specific facts. On the other hand, information tests are also useful as pre-tests if the teacher wishes to know how familiar his students are with the content of a unit or the concepts peculiar to it. Thus, a fact test given before studying the question "How can we solve the traffic problems in our community?" may point out the superficial

knowledge which students have of traffic rules and driving techniques and hence motivate the study of the problem. If, however, the test shows that the students already have the information necessary for safe driving, that phase of the problem need not be stressed. Both divergence in attitudes on controversial issues and the revelation of gaps in important areas of knowledge provide excellent motivation for introducing a unit. They readily stimulate students to discuss a problem or topic, and the teacher then leads the discussion toward the accomplishment of the tasks involved in unit initiation.

2. *Motion pictures.*—The use of motion pictures, slides, or film strips is one of the best techniques to use in introducing a unit, for a well-chosen film can arouse interest, give direction to the development of a unit, raise important issues, and give students a common background for analyzing the area to be studied. *The River* and *The Plow That Broke the Plains* are excellent for introducing a unit on conservation. They dramatically point the unit toward the problem "How can we prevent the waste of our soil?" The latter would probably be the better film to use in initiating the unit, for it raises the problem but does not present a solution. *The River,* on the other hand, shows what the government is doing to stop floods and soil erosion and suggests government action as a solution to the problem. If this film is used in initiating a unit on conservation, it would be well to show only part of it, leaving the rest to be shown as one of the developmental activities. Some of the films made available by the Commission on Human Relations,[9] such as the cuttings from *Captains Courageous* or *Alice Adams,* can be used effectively to introduce such problems as "How can I learn to get along with people?" "How can I make new friends?" or a unit on the family. The excerpts from *Fury* could be used to stimulate interest in labor problems, or *Cavalcade* to raise issues on war and peace.

More available than the excerpts from commercial films are the 16-mm. films issued primarily for use in the schools. Some of these are exceptionally good.[10] *Sons of Liberty,* an excellent picture showing the contribution of Haym Salomon to the American Revolution, could be used to introduce the unit "The Establishment of American Independence" if the chronological approach is used. The same film might be used to initiate a topical unit, "The People Who Make Up America" or "Our Civil Liberties"; or it might be used to initiate the problem "How can we improve our interracial and intercultural relations?"

Although current pictures and newsreels may not have been seen by all the students in a class, the advertisements and general discussion accompanying popular pictures supply those students who have not seen them with sufficient information so that the pictures can often be

used with considerable success. A picture such as *Crossfire* would stimulate discussion leading to a study of minorities or intergroup relations, and similarly, a discussion of *Going My Way* might raise issues concerning juvenile delinquency and the unwholesome use of leisure time. Walt Disney's *The Three Caballeros* is excellent for introducing a unit on Mexico or inter-American relations. It is true, of course, that the right movie does not always appear when it is wanted, but it is surprising how many movies are adaptable to classroom discussion if teachers are sensitive to their use. Advance advertisements for historical pictures and special features are often made available to schools and make excellent bulletin-board displays. Other interesting materials on current films can often be obtained through the local theater.

3. *Radio and recordings.*—Discussions of controversial issues in radio programs and radio plays dramatizing important historical events furnish excellent leads for introducing a unit. The difficulty in using radio programs has been that too often they come at an hour when it is almost impossible for students to hear them or when the discussion is not timely for class use. Then, too, students find it difficult to listen to programs at home when too many interruptions or consideration for family preferences interferes with close attention to what is being said. Some schools have overcome this difficulty by making their own recordings of programs which they consider suitable for classroom use. The University of Chicago Round Table discussions, the Town Meeting of the Air programs, speeches by outstanding statesmen and authorities in various fields can be recorded and used when and how the teacher finds them most useful. The Town Meeting of the Air program, "What Shall We Do about the Joads?" for example, was used with considerable success to start a unit on migratory labor with an eleventh-grade class. Plays and musical programs can also be recorded and used. Some of the Henry Aldrich programs could form the basis for a stimulating discussion of personal and family problems.

It is now possible to buy or rent recordings so that a school library of these materials can be built up. Any one of the "Let Freedom Ring" series[11] could be used to introduce a unit on civil liberties or the chronological unit "Formation of Our Government." Likewise, a number of the transcriptions from the "Americans All—Immigrants All" series[12] could be used to initiate a unit on American life or a problem dealing with racial and national minorities; "Ballad for Americans" could introduce the unit "The People of the United States."

4. *Field trips or excursions.*—One of the most challenging ways of presenting a new unit is to take the class out to observe for themselves

a social situation in the neighborhood, community, or region. One group of students, for example, accompanied by their teacher and a social worker, made a field trip to find out the housing conditions in their city. The social worker took them to the worst types of tenement houses, to the shacks on the river flats, to sections of the city which could not have been visited without the social worker and where conditions might have escaped·notice had she not pointed them out. All types of houses were inspected during the tour: low-rent houses, moderately priced ones, houses for members of upper income levels, and finally the home of a multimillionaire which had recently been turned over to the city for an art museum. With this trip as a background, the group tackled the problem of housing and analyzed it much more realistically than they could have done without this experience.

While summer experiences are not common for the class as a whole, a resourceful teacher, in starting a new unit, can often capitalize on interest which has been aroused during the summer. Since many children travel during vacation, a discussion of their summer experiences might lead to units concerned with conserving our national resources, preserving our national parks, transportation, recreation, or some social problem of which they became conscious during their summer travels. Travel experiences of members of the class might also provide the basis for the study of units on American history, world history, geography, and intercultural relations.

Excursions which are the culminating experience in one unit may act as the initiating experience for a subsequent unit. Such was the experience of a group of Seattle juniors who made a two-day trip to the Grand Coulee Dam at the conclusion of their unit on American life. While the excursion provided a social situation in which cultural equality had a chance to function, the trip aroused interest in so many social problems that any one of a number of units demanded the immediate attention of the class—conservation, government service, agriculture, the question of government ownership and regulation of public utilities were a few of the more pressing interests. When the members of the class finally decided on a study of government agencies, the initiating experience had already taken place and they were ready to proceed with the task of defining and analyzing their new unit.

5. *Books.*—Sensitivity to a unit area can often be developed through a good book. Novels, plays, poems, biographies, and travel books can all be used to set the stage for the study of a particular unit, to stimulate curiosity, and to arouse concern about an area to be studied. Several days may profitably be spent in free reading. This reading should be of the nontextbook type, for its purpose is not to gather data

or get a solution to a problem but rather to raise issues and to arouse interest.

This requires extensive bibliographies and a familiarity on the part of the teachers with books of all kinds. If classroom libraries can be built up to supplement the school library, it is possible to have more than one copy of books which are of particular value. However, school and city librarians are usually most coöperative in suggesting books and even in permitting books to be moved into the classroom. Asking the librarian for suggestions does not relieve the teacher of the responsibility of searching for his own materials. Librarians cannot be expected to build bibliographies for all teachers or to know what books will meet the many needs of any one class. Students also can help build bibliographies if challenged by the teacher to search for books of interest and value. While it is not necessary to collect the books in the classroom, it is advantageous for students to have an opportunity to see the books, to handle them, and to browse through them. More books are likely to be read if they are on tables in the classroom where students can see them. Books like Nora Waln's *The House of Exile*, Pearl Buck's *The Good Earth*, Lin Yu Tang's *My Country and My People*, Sugimoto's *A Daughter of the Samurai*, Hobart's *Yang and Yin*, help the student become oriented to civilizations different from his own and arouse interest in their customs, traditions, and problems. Historical novels and biographies also can be used to stimulate interest in the people of past cultures and to present their problems and aspects of their culture.

Unless all students read the same book this experience lacks the commonality considered essential for a good initiatory experience. However, if the books read deal with the same historical period or culture, the same general problem or topic, a discussion of the problems and issues raised in a number of books may be even more valuable in broadening the scope of the unit and arousing interest. Teachers who are interested in this technique will find the *Reader's Guide to Prose Fiction* by Elbert Lenrow[13] helpful in selecting books to use with different problems, and Hannah Logasa's *Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for History Classes in Junior and Senior High School*[14] is useful for historical novels. A number of other bibliographies have been prepared to help teachers in locating materials of this kind.[15]

6. *Articles, short stories, editorials.*—Among the many ways in which a unit can be initiated, mention should be made of the use of editorials, short stories, magazine and newspaper articles, and excerpts from novels and plays. Read to the class, these, if well chosen, may raise

issues, sharpen issues already raised, and provide the stimulation needed for studying a unit. Stuart Chase's article "The Good and Evil of the New Industrialism"[16] lines up the results of industrialization in such a way that students usually want to challenge one or more of Chase's conclusions, to find out more about the machine age in which they live and the Industrial Revolution which produced it. A unit on World War II might be introduced by Henry Wallace's speech "The Price of Free World Victory"[17] or by analyzing the results of *Fortune's* poll[18] of the opinion of high-school youth on national and international problems. Excerpts from books such as *The Time for Decision* by Sumner Welles, *Journey for Margaret* by W. L. White, *London's Pride* by Phyllis Bottome, *The Moon Is Down* by John Steinbeck, or the short story "The Man Who Won the War"[19] by Robert Buckner also might be used to initiate a unit on war and peace. Archibald MacLeish's radio plays, *The Fall of the City* and *Air Raid,* are both superb for arousing people emotionally and might be used to introduce a study either on dictators or on war and its consequences. Materials of this type are almost inexhaustible and are readily accessible to all teachers. These suggestions may be enough to give teachers a glimpse of the possibilities of their use.

7. *Incidents.*—One of the advantages of following a flexible sequence of units is that one can utilize issues which are high in current interest outside the school. A presidential election certainly presents a situation which should be capitalized on in the study of political problems. Political speeches, news articles, and campaign materials can be utilized in initiating a unit either on government or on propaganda; e.g., "How do we make up our minds?" or "How can we know what to believe?" An unusual incident in the community, such as an outstanding theatrical or musical production; a catastrophe of some sort—a fire, a flood, or an automobile accident; a local controversy over the ownership of public utilities, an election or a strike; an art exhibit; and a trial—all suggest possibilities of stimulating educational experiences which can be used to give greater meaning and reality to classroom study. Local incidents must, of course, be used with due regard for public opinion. Obviously it would be unwise to study labor relations at the height of a bitter strike.

8. *Arranged environment.*—One of the most common ways used to arouse interest and to initiate a unit is to arrange the environment of the room by means of pictures, models, and exhibits of various kinds so that the students' attention is directed to the unit about to be studied. Bulletin-board displays, dioramas, and models of machinery, buildings, airplanes, and boats help create the desired environment. When

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well-selected, these not only arouse interest and give a common experience but also raise issues leading to an analysis and definition of the unit. Traffic signs, posters, apparatus for testing vision and reaction time, and a stripped-down model of an automobile would certainly provide the atmosphere which a teacher could use to initiate a unit on safe driving.

Whatever technique the teacher uses for starting the unit (and only a few out of many have been suggested), the experience should be challenging and should point out social implications or sharpen issues already raised. If the unit is a problem unit, the initiation experience should also suggest hypotheses for solving the problem; but never under any circumstances should it state as such the conclusion which the teacher hopes the class will reach as a result of its study. In the discussion which follows the use of any of the techniques suggested, the teacher should raise issues and questions related to the unit, find out what individuals in the class already know about it, point out the need for new information, and work with the group in defining and analyzing the area and in planning their study of the unit.

Defining and Analyzing a Problem

Sometimes the issues are so clear cut that the class has no difficulty in stating the theme of the unit to the satisfaction of everyone. At other times the discussion following the initiating experience may be so stimulating that the various factors involved in the situation are brought out before a formal statement of the unit can be agreed upon. This illustrates the fact that there is no definite order or steps to be taken and that the procedure to follow depends on the unit, the group, and the teacher himself. Because of the very nature of a problem, a problem unit is more difficult to define and analyze than a chronological or topical unit. As was suggested earlier, the definition of the problem is most important, for without a clear conception of what is to be studied the class has no goal toward which to work. The statement of the unit area (a) should be comprehensive enough to include all important elements; (b) should be limited in scope so that it can be adequately handled by students at a particular grade level and in a reasonable length of time; (c) should be challenging; (d) should be stated in language meaningful to students and not in adult terminology; and (e) if it is a problems unit, should imply that there are several possible solutions to be considered before a conclusion is reached and that the conclusion should result in action on the part of the group. The tendency of many groups is to undertake a unit so broad that almost anything could be considered pertinent to it. With younger groups, this is particularly dangerous, for their interest span

is short and it is difficult for them to see relationships between too many related topics and the overall unit area. "How can we improve and preserve American democracy?" is one of those all-embracing problems which need to be defined in a more limiting way before they can be handled satisfactorily by most high-school classes.

Sometimes the definition of a problem unit needs to be restated after it has been analyzed into the parts which the class considers necessary for its solution. This is to be expected, for the original statement of the problem may not include all the factors which the class, after the analysis, finds important. Comprehension and balance in the definition, delimitation, and analysis of a problem unit may be secured if the following questions are used as guides: (1) What is the problem? (2) What is its present status and how did it develop? (3) What do we want to achieve? (4) What are the proposals for its solution? (5) What solution seems most promising? (6) What can we do about it?

Suppose, for the purpose of illustration, that a world-history class decides to study the problem "How can the conditions of minority groups be improved?" Since the class is enrolled in world history, the emphasis should be on European minorities rather than on social, ethnic, and religious minorities in American culture, although these too should be brought in if the problem is to be personal as well as social in emphasis. The analysis of the problem might bring out such questions as the following:

1. How can wholesome relations among racial and religious minorities be developed in our community?
2. What are some significant minority groups in Europe and in America?
3. How did Europe's minority groups originate?
4. How was the minority problem changed by the treaties after World War I? by World War II?
5. What standards should we seek to realize in minority-group relationships?
6. What efforts have been made to solve the minority problem?
7. How does the Jewish problem differ from other minority problems?
8. How valuable are minority groups to the nation of which they are a part?
9. How did the rise of Nazism affect the problem of minorities?
10. How successfully have European boundaries been drawn so as to minimize the problem of ethnic minorities?
11. How successful is the migration of peoples in solving the minority problem?
12. How successfully does self-determination aid in solving the minority problem?

13. How successful is the application of democratic principles in solving the problem?
14. How can we in America help with the problem of minorities?
15. What can I do to help with the solution of the minority problem?

Undoubtedly other questions or factors will be raised in the discussion. These and others can be listed on the board as the members of the class suggest them. Grouping the problems and questions suggested by the class and organizing them for study presents an excellent opportunity for group thinking. Students learn to see relationships and the need for logical organization as big issues begin to stand out and as the overall problem takes form. The teacher, of course, is the active leader in this discussion, directing it, suggesting factors needed for developing the problem, questioning the relevancy of others, and seeing that all important aspects of the problem are considered. The leadership which the teacher takes depends, of course, on the experience and ability of the group. With younger students and with students who have had little or no experience in democratic planning, the teacher will have to assume more responsibility. Young people who have always been told what to do and how to do it cannot suddenly begin to plan worth-while educational activities. First experiences often prove discouraging unless the teacher gives wise and judicious leadership. As students gain more experience in working together, in assuming responsibility, and in planning coöperatively, the teacher's rôle can become more that of an adviser and guide. The teacher, however, should never abdicate his place as a leader of the group or relinquish his responsibility for seeing that worth-while activities are undertaken and that the experiences of the class are educationally in keeping with the philosophy and objectives of the school.

Planning the Unit

After the class has defined and analyzed the unit area, the next step is to develop a plan for studying the unit. When a preplanned, teacher-made unit is used, the initiatory stage ends when interest has been aroused and the unit area has been analyzed and defined. At this point the mimeographed unit guide is given to students to use in directing their study during the developmental stage of the unit. The teacher explains the organization of the plan and discusses with the students the objectives selected for the unit. In pupil-teacher planned units, however, the introduction of the unit includes the coöperative development of a plan for study.

The first step in developing a pupil-teacher planned unit is to formulate into objectives the changes in behavior which the members

of the class hope will result from their study of the unit. This emerges naturally out of the discussion of the definition and analysis of the unit area. As this proceeds, the teacher can raise questions concerning the significance of particular questions, problems, or topics; and when the analysis is completed, a list can be made of the major understandings, attitudes, skills, and abilities which studying the unit should assist in developing. While these no doubt will supplement or restate objectives which the group set up earlier in the year as their long-term aims for the course, they should be concrete and specific in terms of the unit area and the definite things which the students hope to accomplish by their immediate work. It should be understood clearly that evaluation of student development will be in terms of the objectives which the teacher and students have formulated coöperatively.

Following the listing of objectives, the teacher and class can list activities and materials which seem appropriate in investigating the questions and problems and in achieving the objectives that have been stated. All activities included should be screened against the objectives. As indicated in Chapter 7, a resource unit can be of considerable assistance to the teacher in providing suggestions which he may make to the class during the process of pupil-teacher planning.

After the teacher and members of the class have listed on the blackboard a definition and analysis of the unit area, a statement of objectives and suggested activities and materials, someone should take the responsibility for writing the unit study guide. This generally will be done by the teacher. Where students have had considerable experience in pupil-teacher planning and have developed a high level of competence and maturity, a committee from the class occasionally may take responsibility for writing the unit under close teacher supervision. When the unit plan has been written, carefully edited, and mimeographed, it is placed in the hands of students to direct their work during the developmental stage of the unit. If duplicating facilities are not available, unit guides may be written on the blackboard to be copied in their notebooks by the students.

Careful planning for the unit takes time and should not be hurried. Group thinking is often slower than teacher planning, but it is generally more effective. The success of the unit depends, in large measure, on its initiation and the thoroughness with which plans are made and activities and procedures determined. When plans are formulated and everyone understands what needs to be done, what responsibilities he has for group activities as well as for his own, where information can be found, and how it is to be presented, the study of the unit can proceed with assurance of successful learning.

Developing a Unit

During he developmental period the actual study of the unit takes place. Students collect, evaluate, organize, and interpret information bearing on all phases of the problem or topic under consideration. They may work in small groups or individually. Opportunity should be provided for them to share the information which they gather with their classmates and to clarify their thinking through formal or informal presentation, group discussion, and friendly but critical challenges of opinions and ideas. Perhaps no two units should be handled in exactly the same way. What works successfully with one teacher may be a dismal failure with another. Techniques used successfully with one class often do not work well with another even when used by the same teacher. Certain principles, however, seem applicable to most situations, and good teachers have found them useful with all types of units.

Guiding Principles for Selecting Developmental Activities

1. *A wide variety of materials should be used.*—If students are to develop the ability to collect and organize data, they should not be confined to a single textbook where the material is well-organized and where generalizations are already drawn. They should be given the opportunity to handle many types of materials, to read and interpret them, and to weigh evidence presented from different points of view and in statistical and pictorial, as well as paragraph, form. Newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, biographies, travel books, journalists' accounts, and books dealing with social, political, and economic topics should be used as well as textbooks. Graphic and pictorial materials of all kinds —films, charts, tables, pictures, maps, and models—should be utilized to the fullest extent. Data on the reading ability of his students should be in the possession of every social-studies teacher so that he can provide reading material commensurate with their ability. If such data are not available when the students come to him, the teacher should give a reading test as soon as possible in order to diagnose difficulties and abilities in vocabulary, speed, and comprehension.

2. *Provision should be made for a variety of experiences calling for individual, committee, and group work.*—Reading is only one way of gathering data, although a very important one. It has been utilized in social-studies classrooms in the past almost to the exclusion of all other types of experience, and the individual with limited verbal ability has had a difficult time in succeeding. In spite of its excellence, reading is only a vicarious source and does not compare with first-hand experience as an educative process. Excursions into the community,

interviews, community surveys, making statistical tables and graphs from raw data, carrying on experiments, observation, writing for materials, and corresponding are all ways of gathering information at first hand. Opportunity should also be provided for young people to work together in small groups, to plan, organize, and carry through a project to completion. More students get an opportunity to develop leadership qualities when the class is divided into small groups. The chairmanship of committees as well as the class chairmanship should be changed frequently so that as many as possible get an opportunity to preside and assume responsibility. Students with special talents in art or music, with manipulative skill in building, demonstrating, sewing, modeling, and the like should have as much opportunity to present their findings to the class through the medium in which they excel as the student who is facile with words has through speeches and reports. Democracy involves a pattern of leadership where everyone is at one time a leader and at other times a follower. Leadership is a function of the objective which the group is trying to achieve, and the leader at a particular time is the one whose abilities enable him to advance the group most effectively toward the objective for which it is then working. When the objective changes, the leader changes. Thus students come to appreciate the value of the expert in a democracy and to recognize that no one is born to be a leader in all situations nor are others born to be mere followers.

3. *All activities should be related to the objectives.*—Each activity should be screened against the objectives which the class has decided are the behaviors with which it is concerned; and no activity should be undertaken, regardless of how interesting it is, unless it provides an opportunity for growth in the direction of those behaviors. If, for example, the group decides it wants to develop the ability to work with others, to share ideas, to grow in self-reliance and self-direction, then activities must be planned which provide for committee work, permit originality in group and individual projects, and encourage students to be self-reliant in locating reference material and in using library resources. Classrooms in which teachers make all the decisions, where students work alone at desks arranged in rows, and where cooperation means doing what the teacher says, will not help boys and girls grow in these behaviors.[20]

4. *Opportunity should be provided for student participation in determining what activities shall be undertaken, how the unit shall be developed, the part each student shall have, and the evaluation of student growth.*—Youth learn democratic procedures by practicing them. They learn that rights are always accompanied by responsibilities and

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obligations. Life is easier and simpler when someone else makes the decisions. For that reason, teachers often rationalize their autocratic methods by saying that students prefer definite assignments, that they do not want to plan, that planning takes too much time, or that students feel more secure when teachers tell them what to do. Democratic attitudes and the ability to use democratic processes are developmental. Youth need to experience gradually increasing responsibility in keeping with their maturity. Young people accustomed to having all decisions made for them, to being told always how and what to do, cannot be expected overnight to become self-disciplined and resourceful. Training in the use of democratic processes under the wise direction of a competent teacher is one of the most important services the schools can perform. Teachers should not be discouraged if students fumble and make mistakes or if pupil-teacher planning at first is slow and difficult. The values to be derived from student participation far outweigh the difficulties and disadvantages which accompany it.[21]

5. *Classroom activities should be organized so that the basic processes of logical thinking are utilized in all units.*—Too often teaching and learning are concerned with only one phase of the thinking processes—the accumulation of information. It is important in all units that students learn to organize, interpret, and evaluate their data; that they learn to generalize on the basis of all the pertinent and reliable information at their command; and that they recognize the use of generalizations and principles in deciding on future courses of action. Although the steps in logical thinking are most fully used in the problems approach, teachers should guide unit activity toward the development of sound generalizations and conclusions regardless of the approach used.

Gathering the Information

If the initiatory experience has been successful and students have been properly motivated for their study of the unit and have defined and analyzed it into its basic factors, then students are ready to gather information and begin their study. The subproblems and questions indicated in the analysis of the unit now become motivating, directing, and organizing centers in the search for information. Students go to various materials with the questions in mind and seek to discover pertinent information. The teacher guides them in this task. While numerous materials, activities, and techniques are appropriate to this aspect of the unit development, the *objectives* determine the types of activities to be used with a particular class. The ability to collect data includes such behaviors as: (a) using books intelligently and efficiently; (b) using library facilities and reference books readily and easily; (c)

listening attentively and discriminatingly; (*d*) conducting an interview; (*e*) observing and recording data accurately; (*f*) judging the reliability of materials; (*g*) skimming, browsing, or reading intensively; (*h*) taking notes systematically and economically; and (*i*) working alone or with others on a committee. If any or all of these behaviors are part of the class objectives, opportunities should be provided for their development.

1. *Use of library facilities.*—Much of the time during the study of the unit will be spent in searching for information: reading, collecting facts, and organizing these facts for presentation to the class, together with whatever conclusions the student or committee has been able to draw. Ample opportunity should be provided within all units for the use of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* in search of recent articles. Many books of all kinds, including textbooks, reference books, and pamphlets, should be used. Care should be taken that students are not left to flounder because they cannot find material or to waste an unduly large amount of time looking for materials. Teachers must know when to offer help and when to withhold it. Often a test on the use of books and library procedures will reveal difficulties which the whole group or individuals within the group are having so that help may be given where it is needed.

As students read conflicting statements in various sources, texts, or newspapers, they learn the necessity of setting up criteria for judging the reliability of their materials. The critical appraisal of sources of information is particularly essential in an age when propaganda surrounds one on every side. Newspaper reports contradict each other. Books and articles on the same subject present conflicting points of view. The ability to judge the reliability of information and a knowledge of where to look for accurate and dependable data are necessary attributes of competent citizens.

2. *Note-taking.*—It is necessary when students are gathering data from a wide variety of sources that they learn to keep notes systematically and economically. Most students need considerable help in developing this ability, for they tend either to copy verbatim the material which they have read or to select irrelevant and unimportant details. The note-taking form is not so important. Some students take notes in paragraph form, some find it much easier as well as time-saving to take notes in outline form, and others combine the two. What is important is that students learn to take their notes in some systematic and usable form, that they learn to record accurately their data and their source of information and make their notes brief and to the point.

3. *Community resources.*[22]—Interviews with persons in the commu-

nity and excursions to places of interest are both used by individuals and committees for gathering data. Sometimes the whole class may go on a field trip or excursion. Students should not be sent out to make an interview or be permitted to visit any local museum, institution, or place of business without definite instruction on how to conduct an interview or on what to observe on a field trip. It is important that any activity of this nature be well-planned, that its relation to the unit be emphasized, and that the exact purpose of the excursion and interview be understood. Too often students look upon such excursions from the classroom as an opportunity to get out of class and do not see the importance or value of accurate observation and careful reporting.

The community survey is an excellent technique for gathering information from first-hand sources. Classes which use this activity can often make a valuable contribution to the community by collecting and presenting accurate data on a local problem which needs solution. A survey of the health resources of the community, for example, might be made for a unit on health; or the recreational needs and delinquency areas of the community might be surveyed in connection with a unit on either recreation or crime to show the relationship of inadequate recreational facilities to juvenile delinquency. The several excellent guides on community surveys which are available offer many valuable suggestions for activities of this kind.[28] Civic leaders, government officials, school executives, laborers, professional people, and businessmen are all community resources which the school can draw on for assistance in helping students gather information. When community leaders are invited to speak to a class, careful plans should be made so that only those persons are invited who are competent to speak and so that the invited guest will know what is expected of him and what the class is studying. Unless careful plans are made, outside speakers may interrupt rather than help the class. The school should not abuse the generosity of some community leaders by making too many calls on their time.

4. *Use of committees.*—It is important that young people learn to work with others in small groups as well as in large groups. From the standpoint of economy of time as well as of educational value derived, it is often advantageous to divide the class into committees for certain phases of the work on the unit. As nearly as possible, an individual should be allowed to choose his own committee. Sometimes, however, a committee assembled through individual choice may be made up of persons who cannot work together without conflict or waste of time. Sometimes a shift of a few persons may strengthen several groups. In forming committees the teacher has in mind not only the preference of each individual and his particular needs but also the requirements

for effective group organization. The work of any one committee must definitely tie into the unit as a whole, and the principle which should guide the committee's work might well be: How can we contribute to a better understanding of the unit?

While the committees are investigating their respective phases of the unit, certain parts of it should be studied by the entire class. Certainly the class as a whole must have an understanding of the background of the unit, of its magnitude, of the general nature of the issues involved, before they can listen intelligently to the findings of any committee. The committees likewise need the general understanding so that they will keep their work focused on the unit. The general study in which the whole class participates can be going on simultaneously with the work of the committees. Committee reports and individual floor talks can then be interspersed with class discussion and activities as an integral part of the study of the whole unit.

How much guidance and supervision the committees will need depends on their personnel and the nature of their work. Certainly a teacher needs to have a conference with each committee soon after it starts work or, if it seems to be having no difficulties, a definite statement as to how it expects to proceed with its research. Most of these conferences can be held during class time while the rest of the group is studying in the general area or working in other committees. These conferences are necessary because oftentimes committee members feel uncertain about how to proceed or have difficulty in finding materials and in formulating plans. The guidance and suggestions of the teacher thus are essential so that each student may work most effectively. It is well, too, for each member of the committee to evaluate his work on the committee as his research progresses. He might do this by handing in at stated intervals what he has read, what additional research he has done, when he expects to be ready to report, and what form the report will take. Adolescents need a definite and clear conception of what they are doing so that they can achieve a sense of security and of accomplishment. It is not advisable to let them work on their own for too long a time without careful checks on their progress. A check sheet similar to the one on page 217 not only requires self-evaluation on the part of the student but also provides the teacher with a means for checking the progress being made by each individual.

5. *Literature.*—Many of the suggestions made for initiating the unit are also useful in studying it. Literature of all kinds would certainly be used. Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar* and Machiavelli's *The Prince* could, for example, contribute to a study of dictators. Victor Hugo's *Les Miserables,* Dostoevski's *Crime and Punishment,* George Eliot's

Report of Progress

Name..   Date..

Class..   Date of Preceding Report.........................

Committee..   Chmn..

....

....

My Topic

Things Accomplished   *Things Planned*

1. Readings

Author   *Title*   *Author*   *Title*

....

....

....

....

2. Interviews and Trips

....

....

3. Maps, Charts, Diagrams, Models, etc.

....

....

I plan to finish my research and have my report ready by (Date)............................

My group plans to be ready to share information with the class by (Date)...............

I (or my group) plan to use the following method of sharing information with the

class:..

....

....

Silas Marner, Maupassant's "The Necklace," and Poe's "The Pit and the Pendulum" are just a few of the classics which might be used with profit in a study of crime. Dickens' *Oliver Twist*, Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, Thomas Paine's *Common Sense*, Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle*, Cobb's *Paths of Glory*, and Erika Mann's *School for Barbarians* show the great variety of books which employ propaganda techniques.

The use of poetry should not be overlooked either. Richard Le-Gallienne's poem "War" illustrates how words can be used to arouse the emotions and the part which poetry might play in the study of the problem. Archibald MacLeish's *Land of the Free* and Carl Sandburg's *The People, Yes* likewise stir the emotions and make the hearer more sensitive to the needs and problems of the American people.

Drama is sometimes more effective than either prose or poetry. *The Merchant of Venice* or *Othello* could be used effectively in a unit dealing with intercultural relations; *Disraeli, Abraham Lincoln*, and *St. Joan* are only three of a great number of historical plays which could well be used in a history classroom to bring to life events of the past; *There Shall Be No Night* and *Watch on the Rhine* dramatize the sufferings of war and present issues important to an understanding of the problems which war brings and which must be solved if wars are to cease.

6. *Visual and auditory aids.*[24]—Motion pictures, music, radio, and recordings are useful in studying a unit as well as in introducing it. When and how to use such material depends on what the teacher wishes to accomplish by its use. It is important that the teacher or a member of a committee, if the visual or auditory aid is used in connection with its report, explain to the class something about what is to be shown or heard; suggest things to be looked for or listened to; and tell why this particular film, picture, or record was selected. Careful planning should be made for a follow-up experience which will tie the activity into the unit and contribute to an understanding of it.

7. *Art and music.*[25]—Exhibits of art collections, prints of famous paintings, pictures of great works of sculpture and architecture, enrich a unit and aid in the understanding of the culture of a nation as well as in the development of appreciation of the beautiful. Music has been neglected even more than art or literature in social education. If the level of musical appreciation in the United States is to continue to rise, it is necessary to bring more music into the classroom so that students become familiar with the finest music of the world, so that they learn to recognize and enjoy the works of Mozart, Beethoven, Strauss, Bach, and the other great masters. The radio and a library of

musical records have made possible the use of music by teachers who are aware of the richness of this material and its cultural contribution.

While the use of both art and music can be justified on the basis of their cultural contribution, they are also useful in interpreting a culture and understanding a problem. The murals of Rivera and Orozco carry a social message of suffering humanity; the paintings and lithographs of Grant Wood and Thomas Benton present two artists' conceptions of life in the Midwest; and the drawings of William Gropper and William Sloan call attention to many of the sore spots in our culture—slums, sweatshops, relief, bread lines, injustice, and the like. Art has also been used to glorify the state, to create new styles, or to propagandize a philosophy. David, the great painter of the French Revolution, was particularly a master of this technique and was so good that he made people like pictures in which the message was more important than the art. Many of our modern artists likewise are more concerned with the message than with art. Van Loon says that "the arts have always played a decidedly 'functional' role in the development of our civilization. . . . No art that was merely made for art's sake has ever been any good. Whereas the art born out of a necessity and created to fill a definite purpose seems to live forever."[26] Any history teacher knows that he cannot teach the culture of a period without stressing the art, the music, and the literature of that period. The art of each civilization reflects the whole life of the people. The characteristic love which the Greeks had for beauty and perfection, for moderation in all things, is revealed in their sculpture and architecture. The individuality of the Renaissance man and his interest in human as well as spiritual problems is manifest in the works of Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, Michelangelo, Titian, and Rembrandt; in the architecture of public buildings and palaces; and in the sculpture of Donatello, Della Robbia, Michelangelo, and Verrocchio. Music, too, reflects the life of a people. Chopin's music speaks of the suffering of Poland; Sibelius' "Finlandia" tells us of the lakes and hills of Finland and of the wind singing in the forests. The music of Tschaikowsky and Stravinsky gives us a picture of Russian plains and Russian life. The Negro songs of the South, the cowboys' songs of the West, and the folk songs of a people are a part of their culture and must be known if one is to understand fully their life, their hopes and aspirations, their defeats and problems.

The effect of music upon the emotions is well known. The propagandist uses it in subtle ways to arouse the emotions or drug the senses. This powerful appeal of music can be shown by the effect which marching music has on men—music which LeGallienne called "heady

music, sweet as hell." To understand its effect, a group studying a unit on war should hear some martial music, such as "Stars and Stripes Forever," "Over There," or "The Marseillaise." Van Loon perhaps exaggerated the effect which music has on the senses when he wrote:

But if you want an explanation of this [Napoleon's] strange career, if you really wish to know how one man could possibly rule so many people for so many years by the sheer force of his will, do not read the books that have been written about him. Their authors either hated the Emperor or loved him. You will learn many facts, but it is more important to "feel history" than to know it. Don't read, but wait until you have a chance to hear a good artist sing the song called "The Two Grenadiers." The words were written by Heine, the great German poet who lived through the Napoleonic Era. The music was composed by Schumann, a German who saw the Emperor, the enemy to his country, whenever he came to visit his imperial father-in-law. The song therefore is the work of two men who had every reason to hate the tyrant.

Go and hear it. Then you will understand what a thousand volumes could not possibly tell you.[27]

8. *Listening*.—With the advent of the radio, television, and the talking motion picture new impetus has been given to listening as a means of gathering information. News broadcasts, public forums, speeches by statesmen, radio advertising, music, and drama are all brought to us by radio for our pleasure and edification. Listening has long been one of the lost arts in America. Since listening is one of the most important ways of securing information in modern culture, opportunity must be provided for developing effectiveness in it. Students undoubtedly will need some way of checking how well they listen. They probably, therefore, should take notes on oral reports which are given in class, on panel discussions, on radio talks, and on the recordings of speeches. These notes may take various forms. Sometimes an outline of the speech may be made; sometimes they may write their reaction to the talk or jot down questions which they wish to raise at the close of the speech. Again, they may listen without notes and write a critique or résumé afterward. A short test can be prepared on a recording and given immediately after it is heard to see how many of the main ideas were grasped.

Students should learn early in their school experience that not only is it discourteous not to pay attention when someone is speaking but they may miss something important. On the other hand, if students are to be held responsible for what is reported in class, then the group or student making the report is obligated to make the report clear and worth while. It often is helpful for the group to discuss what

Evaluation for an Oral Report

Student presenting report...Date............................

Topic presented..

Unit or problem to which report is related...

> Directions: Draw a circle around the dot in the column which best corresponds to your appraisal of that aspect of the report. *D* stands for *definitely yes; S* for *somewhat; N* for *no.*

The Report   D   S   N

   1. Are the facts and ideas presented relevant and pertinent to the topic? • • •

   2. Is the material well-organized? • • •

   3. Does the introduction arouse your interest? • • •

   4. Does the conclusion draw together the ideas in an effective manner? • • •

   5. Is the material drawn from reliable and adequate sources? • • •

The Delivery

   1. Had adequate preparation been made so that the talk was given without hesitation? • • •

   2. Does the speaker seem enthusiastic about his subject? • • •

   3. Can the speaker be heard easily? • • •

   4. Can the speaker be understood clearly? • • •

   5. Are the words pronounced correctly? • • •

   6. Is the choice of words commendable? • • •

   7. Is the language grammatical? • • •

   8. Is the speaker's posture easy and dignified? • • •

   9. Does the speaker hold the interest of his audience? •

General Evaluation of the Report

Signed..

constitutes a good floor talk from the standpoint of content and delivery and to set up a list of criteria with which to evaluate the effectiveness of reports to the class. A list of criteria similar to the one above might be mimeographed and used regularly. Each student would thus have a record of where he had failed to be effective, of where he needed to make improvement, and of his growth or lack of growth in oral communication.

Studying involves not only collecting information but also selecting,

organizing, and interpreting data. This process is a continuous one. Some data will be discarded as irrelevant and extraneous. Note-taking will involve arrangement and organization. Class discussion should be directed to pointing out cause-and-effect relationships and to noting the interplay of various factors upon the unit as a whole. Individuals and committees need to be constantly reminded that their reports must present important information and, when a problem is involved, define issues and propose tentative conclusions.

Presenting Information

Reports can be made in numerous ways, and students should have the opportunity of choosing the methods by which they share their information with the class. Committee and individual reports should be a definite part of the unit study, not something extraneous to it. Each report should have a definite bearing upon the solution of the problem or the understanding of the unit. They should be timed so that they are presented when the class has the necessary background for hearing them and when the information presented is pertinent to the phase of the unit under discussion.

1. *Panel discussions.*—A panel discussion is an effective way of presenting data and conclusions, especially when a problem is being considered. Panels should be carefully planned and students instructed in the technique of what constitutes a panel discussion. The number on a panel varies. It is better, however, not to have too large a group, for the discussion becomes unwieldy if too many try to talk. Five to eight members can usually participate effectively. The chairman is the most responsible member of the group. He introduces the problem, states the issues involved, recognizes or calls on the various members of the panel, directs the discussion, and summarizes the points made. The material to be presented may be divided and each member of the panel allowed to make a short speech presenting one aspect of the problem. Members of the panel should meet with the chairman to plan the program, because the speeches may need revision in order that the program will be balanced and so that no two speeches will duplicate each other. The speakers sit around a table facing the audience and need not rise to make their presentation unless it is necessary in order for them to be seen and heard easily. Members of the panel may interrupt to ask questions or to comment as the speeches progress, or the questions and comments may be left until after all the issues have been presented.

Sometimes the panel is conducted in a more informal way and no speeches are prepared. The responsibility of the chairman is even greater when this procedure is used, for he not only performs the

functions described above but must direct the whole discussion, drawing out members of the panel who are not talking, keeping some members from monopolizing too much of the discussion, seeing that the whole picture is presented in a logical, unified way and that all possible conclusions to the problem are presented and evaluated. The success of the discussion depends on the skill of the chairman in directing the program and on the amount of planning done before the meeting. Each member of the panel must be thoroughly familiar with the problem and prepared on all issues to be discussed. Usually the audience is given an opportunity to ask questions of any member of the panel at the close of the meeting. The audience does not interrupt the panel during its discussion and takes part at the end only on the invitation of the chairman. The teacher, of course, as a member of the audience, observes the rules of the panel.

2. *Round tables.*—A round-table discussion is somewhat different from a panel and can be used by a smaller group. Here the three or four persons participating discuss the problem with one another, challenge one another's point of view, and state their own opinions and beliefs, citing evidence to substantiate their conclusions. The chairman who introduces the problem and guides the discussion also summarizes the points made and the differences and similarities in the points of view expressed. While this is a most informal type of discussion, each participant must be familiar with all phases of the problem. The University of Chicago Round Table radio program furnishes an excellent example of the round-table technique.

3. *Forums and debates.*—A third type of oral presentation is the forum. Here one or more persons make a formal presentation and then answer questions raised from the floor. A chairman presides, and all questions raised by the audience go through the chairman. This type of presentation has been made popular by the Town Meeting of the Air and can be used effectively by small committees of two or three members.

The advisability of using debates in a social-studies class is questionable. Debating sometimes leads to a one-sided consideration of a problem, to sophistry and bigotry rather than to a search for truth based on a fair and impartial consideration of all the evidence.

4. *Floor talks.*—Individual reports serve the twofold function of providing opportunity for young people to develop the ability to speak before a group in a logical and interesting manner and of developing good listening habits on the part of the group. This demands that reports be well-prepared, that the individual giving the report have something important to say, that he say it and not read it, and that

the group be held responsible for the information given in the report.

Each of the above four types of presenting information orally has advantages, and each student should be given the opportunity to make formal presentations of topics to the class as well as to participate in the more informal discussions provided by the round table or panel. Participation in a panel, round table, or forum has the added value of requiring students to think under pressure, to marshal their arguments, and to substantiate a point of view or conclusion. Challenging questions raised from the floor have a similar value in making a speaker think on his feet, answer questions, and clarify his position. Students should be encouraged to challenge statements made by the panel, to request sources of data, and to ask questions. Such participation stimulates thinking on the part of the whole group.

5. *Informal discussions.*—It is just as important that students learn how to carry on a discussion among themselves in a dispassionate, intelligent manner as it is that they learn to participate in panels, forums, and round tables or to give a floor talk. In fact, it is even more important, for this is the only activity of this kind for which most of them will have much need in out-of-school life. To be tolerant and listen respectfully and carefully to the opinions and beliefs of others, to be open-minded and willing to modify one's attitude on the basis of new evidence, and to withhold an opinion until facts have been examined are all behaviors which require continuous practice if they are to be achieved. Often it is desirable and expedient for the teacher to lead informal discussions. At other times a student chairman may be appointed to act as leader. From an educational standpoint, it is hardly justifiable to allow one member of the class to act as student chairman for a term or a semester and to preside over all class meetings. If the ability to lead a discussion is a behavior worth developing, then as many students as possible should have an opportunity to develop it. A good discussion leader is not born with that ability. Self-confidence and poise are developed through experience in handling groups. Students need opportunity to practice the skills required in keeping the discussion on the topic under consideration, in keeping out extraneous and irrelevant material, and in seeing that the discussion covers the whole topic and does not degenerate into the arguments and disputes in which adolescents often delight.

6. *Dramatic presentations.*—Younger adolescents particularly like to use spectacular and unique ways of presenting committee reports. They enjoy writing radio skits or developing programs like the popular quiz programs which are heard frequently over the air. Some groups with talents for histrionics may write plays and dramatize their find-

ings. Demonstration of how a thing is done or how it works is an effective way of getting across an idea or of teaching a skill, and it is often used by committees. For example, a committee reporting on the quality of canned goods or soap or on the best type of textiles to buy might find it effective to perform experiments before the class to demonstrate its findings.

7. *Graphic art.*—Other groups express their ideas through the medium of art.[28] It is astonishing how many ideas can be put before the class by means of a mural. Murals can be inexpensively made by tacking strips of ordinary wrapping paper to the wall. On this the young artists can express their ideas. This activity has an added advantage, for like orchestra or chorus work it demonstrates the necessity of group thought and action. A group of ninth-grade students at Gompers Junior High School used this method for presenting the information which they had found on life in Mexico. Into the mural they worked the occupations, dress, and amusements typical of Mexico; the religion, the architecture, and crafts found there. With the aid of the art teacher, who was called in to make suggestions and criticisms, the figures were sketched in and then colored. The whole class found the mural fascinating and instructive.

Younger adolescents also like to construct models and to collect art objects and make scrapbooks. One group of seventh-grade children, for example, in studying how homes in foreign countries and other cultures differed from their own, decided that each committee should build a model to show this difference. Each table around which a committee worked became a different community. Indian villages, Eskimo igloos, Japanese gardens, French farms, and pioneer log cabins were built. Research was necessary to find how to construct the homes and how to dress the families. Reports were written on the customs, traditions, and the differences and similarities between each particular culture and their own. There were opportunities, as their work progressed, for them to share their findings with one another so that the whole class knew about many cultures and many peoples before the study was finally completed with an open house to which parents and friends were invited.

It is surprising how much more articulate some students are in explaining a piece of art which they have created than they are in giving a floor talk on the same subject. A series of posters, graphs, and charts, a frieze, and a wall map are a few of the other ways in which data may be presented to the class in a pictorial and interesting fashion.

8. *Written papers.*—Written work is a valuable technique for presenting data, for it forces students to clarify their thinking, to organize

their material and ideas, to see gaps in their data, and to draw their conclusions. There are two types of papers particularly helpful in achieving these objectives and, therefore, useful in social education. One is the *essay type*, in which the student expresses the opinions and ideas which he has formulated as a result of his study and best thinking. This is not a formal research paper but rather original writing expressing the student's point of view. Writing it is a valuable experience because the student is forced to think through his pattern of values and to communicate the result of his thinking clearly and effectively.

The second type of paper, with which many social-studies teachers believe their students should have experience, is the *research paper*. While this should probably be used more extensively with older adolescents, students of all ages should be taught the meaning of plagiarism and should know how to acknowledge the authorship of quoted material and of borrowed ideas. If a research paper is undertaken, careful instructions should be given students in the techniques of gathering data, taking notes, organizing data, writing, using footnotes, and making a bibliography. Careless habits of scholarship can easily be acquired, and care should be taken that scientific methods are followed so that the activity is worth while.

Here is an excellent opportunity for social-studies and English teachers to work together. Students become confused when they are required to make an outline one way in one class and a different way in another, when different footnote and bibliographical forms are used by teachers even in the same department. If the school could adopt one form for each of these techniques, students would not find it so difficult to meet technical standards.

For writing a research paper, careful instructions are needed.

a) Selecting a topic. The paper should, of course, be related to the topic or problem being studied by the class. "Oriental Art" or "Renaissance Music" may be interesting subjects, but they would hardly contribute to a study of civil liberties in America. Care should be taken also that the topic is not too long or too complex, but one which can be handled in a creditable manner by high-school students. "Indian Life" and "Railroads" are types of subjects which are generally too all-inclusive for a high-school paper. The topic for research should be reasonably definite and tangible and should be significant to the student. Sometimes research papers are written on a subproblem of a larger problem or even on the larger problem itself.

b) Making a bibliography. Students are often so eager to start to work that they do not survey the field to find if there is enough material available to do research. The teacher needs to point out

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the importance of making a careful search for books, magazine articles, and other printed materials pertaining to the subject before starting to read. This calls for a thorough use of the card catalogue and of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*. In giving instruction for making bibliographical cards, it is well to explain the need for a separate card for each book, article, and pamphlet and to stress the need for accuracy in taking bibliographical data. Each book card should contain: (1) the call number in the upper left-hand corner, (2) the *full* name of the author, last name first, (3) the title, underlined, (4) the publisher and the place and date of publication, (5) the number of volumes if more than one, (6) the pages if only part of the book is to be used. The bibliographical card for a magazine should contain: (1) the full name of the author, if given, (2) the title of the article in quotation marks, (3) the name of the magazine, underlined, (4) the volume number, (5) the month, day, and year of publication, (6) the pages which the article covers.

Arranged in alphabetical order according to the author's last name, the cards are useful to the student for directing his reading and for making the bibliography for his paper. Students should be warned not to lose or destroy any cards and to watch for new references during the course of their reading.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL CARDS

Chase, Stuart, Goals for America: A Budget of Our

    Needs and Resources, Vol. II, When War Ends.

    New York: Twentieth Century Fund, 1942.

    When War Ends. 6 vols.

Meade, Margaret, "What's the Matter with the
Family?", Harper's, CXC (April 1945), 393-399.

ILLUSTRATIVE NOTE CARD

Workers in U. S.

Chase, Goals for America, p. 29.

Gainfully employed	50,000,000
Unemployed (not on relief)	4,000,000
Housewives	29,000,000
Potential working force	83,000,000
Children under 14	31,000,000
Students 14 to 25	9,000,000
Old, disabled, defectives, and criminals	10,000,000
	50,000,000

c) Taking notes. Students also need careful instruction in taking notes and in distinguishing between paraphrasing, summarizing, outlining, and copying reference material. The first time that a paper is written, directions need to be definite and specific. It might be well to mimeograph them so that the student will have them for future reference. The directions might well include such information about note-taking as the fact that only one note goes on a card, that sometimes the note may be only a single sentence and sometimes only a statistic. Often it will be a paragraph, since the author may devote several pages to explaining one point. But the important thing to get across is that, regardless of how brief it is, *only one note goes on a card* The directions might also contain items which explain that it is wise to put a key word in the upper right-hand corner of the card to tell the subject with which the note deals, and for convenience in filing and sorting the cards according to topics; that the source from which the note is taken must of course be recorded on the first line of the card with the *exact page* reference; that it is not necessary to give the author's full name or the complete title of the book on the note card since the bibliography card has that information, but enough must be given so that references will not be confused.

d) Organizing the material. Simple directions about organizing and writing the paper will save the student many hours of work. The importance of making a topical outline before starting to write his paper should be explained to him. If he has not learned to make a topical outline in connection with his English work, this will of course need to be taught. It is probably advisable to have a conference with the student after he makes his outline and before he starts to write. The teacher can be most helpful at this time in making suggestions as to better organization, additional references to be consulted, and inaccuracies in statements and conclusions. The student can now see the importance of taking notes on cards. If he has followed instructions and has taken *one* note on a card, he can now sort his cards according to items in the outline. References on the same topic can be compared, inconsistencies in data checked, and gaps discovered in the data where additional reading should be done.

e) Writing the paper. If the outline has been well-constructed and the note-taking adequate, the student should have no difficulty in writing the paper. Care should be taken that the student uses the best composition form at his command. All ideas borrowed from another or words quoted should be acknowledged in footnotes. This calls for a careful explanation of footnote form—how footnotes should be numbered and how to employ abbreviations, such as *ibid., op. cit.,* p., pp.,

and ff. This information is so technical that it might be well to include it in the mimeographed directions, together with directions for making a bibliography, so that the student will have it before he starts to write his paper.

A final research paper should contain: (1) a title page, (2) a topical outline of the paper, (3) the main body of the paper, carefully documented, and (4) the bibliography. Every research paper should contain the solutions which the student has reached on the problem as a result of his research.

Culminating the Unit

The culminating or concluding activities are as important to the teaching of a unit as either the initiatory or the developmental period. The function of the culminating activity is to formulate, verify, and apply conclusions based on the information collected during the developmental period of the unit. The emphasis is on application and use of the knowledge learned and the attitudes and skills acquired. Determining how well the objectives of the unit have been attained should be part of the culmination. This can take the form of written or oral tests, of self-evaluation by students of their own growth, or of demonstrations of acquired or perfected skills and changes in behavior.

1. *Tests.*—If a pre-test was given at the beginning of the unit, it is often desirable to repeat it to see if attitudes have changed; if interests have deepened or broadened; if appreciations have been developed; and if progress has been made in understandings, vocabulary usage, or skill in handling data. If there is likely to be much carry-over from the previous test or if the test has been discussed in class, then a comparable form should be used to evaluate the changes which have taken place. Since some of the behaviors most emphasized in problem-solving are the abilities to draw sound generalizations, to substantiate generalizations with reliable data, and to apply accepted principles to new situations, the major emphasis in evaluation used at the conclusion of a problem unit should be on these abilities. Tests, written or oral, should be used in which each student is asked to state what generalizations he has drawn as a result of his research and study, what evidence he can give to substantiate his generalizations, and what fallacies he detects in the generalizations and conclusions advanced by others.

2. *Generalizations.*—Just as it was important at the beginning of the unit for the group to have a common experience which would set the stage for the unit and orient the class to what was to be studied, so it is necessary at the close of the unit that generalizations and conclusions be developed on the basis of the information collected. The types of

tests described above may do this for some units. The research paper or the essay paper is also useful for this purpose. Writing has a definite advantage over other forms of expression in that it requires clarity and concreteness of expression. While undoubtedly the research paper should not be used in connection with every unit of work, a student should have enough experience with this method of presenting ideas to be able to organize and write his material in a clear and effective manner.

3. *Group projects.*—For some units it may be important to have a group activity to which all members will contribute. Some of these activities may be the outgrowth of work started at the beginning of the unit and continued all through it. Suppose, for instance, the group has been studying "How can we improve the housing conditions in our country?" and has made a movie showing slum conditions, dilapidated houses in the poor sections of the city, a federal housing project, and the low-priced houses built with F.H.A. loans. The taking of the film, the editing of the pictures, the writing of captions, have all taken weeks of work and have been the subject of many class discussions.[20] A public exhibit of the picture would be a fitting climax to such a project. Or again, suppose the class has been working on the problem "How can we become better consumers?" and during the course of the problem has studied and analyzed many commercial products ranging all the way from rubber tires, clothing, and building materials to cosmetics, canned goods, soap, milk, and bread. A concluding activity which would not only tie all these findings into a unified whole about which students could generalize but which would also be educative for the school and for the community might be a "Consumer Fair" to which parents and friends are invited. The gymnasium might be borrowed for the occasion and booths built in which the experiments and the findings of the various committees could be displayed.

4. *Programs.*—Assembly programs or class programs to which other classes are invited often prove effective ways of ending a unit. The program should, of course, grow out of the class work and might consist of a skit, a pageant, a panel discussion, an original play, or a series of speeches. Students enjoy working on these programs. They provide an opportunity for using what has been learned, for creative expression, for developing poise and stage presence, for working together on a group project, for thorough research, and for a careful regard for details in presenting facts and demonstrating techniques. A skit showing the plight of a freshman and how he learned to be a good citizen in the school would provide an excellent culminating activity for the problem "How can I get the most out of my high-school experience?" A

pageant picturing the change in education from the days of the Greeks to the modern American high school would demonstrate for the students who worked on the pageant, and for the audience watching it, the importance of providing an education which will meet the needs of youth living in our present culture and why education must be continually changing if it is to meet those needs. A panel discussion on "How can we establish world peace?" or "How can we provide for the social and economic security of the American people and thus conserve our human resources?" could present the findings of the class on these problems to a larger audience and serve as a culminating activity by providing an opportunity to do something about the problem that has been studied. Sometimes students can go into other classes in the school to present their findings to groups interested in the same or similar problems.

· 5. *Plays.*—A short, dramatic one-act play which has as its central theme the concept or principle which the students have come to accept, may express their conclusion more forcibly than any other means. *Afterwards,* a one-act play by Geraldine McCaughan,[30] is an example of a play which might be used in this way after a study of "How can we reduce traffic accidents?" The dramatization of a particularly good story is also a worth-while activity. The short story "Crippled," by Ruth Sawyer,[31] either read or dramatized, could be used to get across a social principle which would not soon be forgotten.

As a culminating activity, however, it is better to have students write and produce their own plays and skits than to produce one written by someone else. By writing their own dramatic production, students can express and use directly the conclusions they have drawn. This technique was used by the Bureau for Intercultural Education in sponsoring a series of projects in eleven high schools in New York City and Westchester County. The method used by these schools, called the *documentary* or *fact-finding* method, consisted of (1) the selection of a subject; (2) research or fact-finding; (3) group discussion and evaluation of the facts unearthed; (4) the coöperation of the group toward a common activity—usually a play.[32] The documentary play or "Living Newspaper" which the documentary method uses is similar to a radio play. It applies to the stage the technique used on the radio and in the motion picture by the March of Time.[33] On the stage the Living Newspaper was developed and used successfully by the Federal Theater.[34] There is no scenery and no acting apart from the use of the voice. The play may or may not be done in view of the audience. Continuity is supplied through background material spoken by a "Voice," corresponding to the rôle of the radio announcer. The episodes or scenes

are brief, sharp, and to the point. If the play is done before the audience, shifts in scenes are accomplished by spotlights and blackouts. This technique makes it unnecessary to provide elaborate costumes, scenery, and stage property or to spend hours in coaching. The keynote of the Living Newspaper is simplicity and sincerity. Many of the unimportant lines can be improvised. Moreover, the students need not be trained actors, and the average boy and girl can take part without embarrassment or self-consciousness. As a culminating activity, the play should be written by the students to present findings in history or on modern problems, or to illustrate phases of living in the school and community. As used by the Bureau for Intercultural Education and by the Federal Theater, it was more of a dramatized editorial than a news story, for it presented an emotional and persuasive point of view.

6. *Culminating activities as natural outgrowth of unit.*—Sometimes the concluding activity is the natural outgrowth of the unit and is needed to make the experience complete. A seventh-grade class, for example, which has worked on the problem "What kind of party shall we have?" would feel the experience wasted if the study did not end in a party in which the students could play the games which they had made, serve the menu they had planned, and demonstrate the manners they had practiced. All their study of how to write invitations, how to behave at a party, how to purchase their supplies out of their limited budget, would be only on a verbal level if the study did not culminate in a party.

The conclusion of the unit may consist of a campaign to put into effect the conclusions reached by the class. For example, if a class has been making a study of student government in the school, of the problem of bicycle traffic, or of better school citizenship, they might put on a campaign using the school newspaper, posters, assembly programs, rallies, and the like to get the student body as a whole to accept the conclusions they have reached.

7. *Community projects.*—Any study which has been undertaken because of a condition or a happening in the community will need to culminate in community participation to be effective. Letters to newspapers setting forth the conclusions of the study, recommendations to the city council or aldermen, and panel discussions or individual presentations before the Chamber of Commerce, church groups, or civic clubs are all ways of presenting conclusions to community groups.[35] Sometimes local radio stations are utilized by students to present their findings to the community. David Starr Jordan High School in Long Beach has established a service bureau which regularly furnishes speakers to community organizations. A list of school speakers and the

problems or topics on which they are prepared to speak is sent to interested groups in the community, and a teacher and group of students in the school act as a clearing house for requests.

8. *Self-appraisal.*—Another technique that may be used in concluding a unit is to ask students to describe how the study of a particular problem or topic has affected their behavior. This requires the student to think through the implications of his research and conclusions for his daily life activities and thus facilitates transfer. It also provides a way to use conclusions related to the more complex problems on which the student cannot always act directly.

As students seek to apply the conclusions to the area they have studied, they should constantly check the validity of the thinking processes they have utilized. Action is one of the best proofs of success or failure. When students carry the results of their study into action, they have an excellent basis for determining how they can improve their effectiveness the next time they study a unit. They also are forced to see the limitations and difficulties of putting conclusions into practice and so develop more mature judgment as to what are feasible and practical courses of action. Students often fail to think through the consequences and the ramifications of a particular conclusion. What seems desirable at the moment may prove to be the most undesirable conclusion when all the possible consequences of accepting it and acting upon it are examined. Thus they learn critical thinking through a continuous reconstruction of experience.

As students and teachers complete their study on one unit, they should begin to consider what unit the group should study next. This leads naturally into the selection of a new unit. Thus the circuit is completed and the process begins anew on the basis of a richer background of experiences; a greater mastery of the ability to think intelligently, to work with others, and to use research techniques; better self-discipline; and more self-reliance.

THE MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION: READING MATERIALS

)F ALL THE ACTIVITIES used in social education for gathering information, reading is the one most commonly employed. In many classrooms t is used almost to the exclusion of all others. Because of its universal se, social-education teachers should be highly judicious in the selecion of reading materials and should be aware of reading difficulties /hich students have or are likely to encounter in the materials which hey are expected to read. Much of the dislike which students in the econdary schools have had for the social studies has been due in large neasure to the dull and unattractive textbooks which they have been orced to read, and often memorize, and to the unsuitability of the naterials to the reading level of the students or to their emotional r intellectual maturity.

Early in the project the teachers in the Stanford Social Education nvestigation recognized the importance of reading in social-studies nstruction and the need for a wide variety of reading materials in he classroom library. Seventy-six per cent of the teachers and 83 per ent of the administrators believed the use of a variety of materials vas very important to successful teaching, while 21 per cent of the eachers and 17 per cent of the administrators considered it to be of noderate importance. Thus, only 3 per cent of the teachers believed hat the use of a variety of materials made no difference to the success f their teaching, while the administrators were unanimous in believng it to be of either great or moderate importance. Although a few of he participants in the Investigation relied on a single textbook when he Investigation began its work, not one of them was slavishly followng one textbook four years later when the study ended. As to the use f a wide variety of materials, one of the twelve behaviors considered ssential for good teaching by both the staff and the participants, the eachers were judged more nearly satisfactory at the end of the first year f the Investigation than on any other behavior, and four years later hey were considered better than satisfactory. The average staff judgnent given this behavior at the end of 1939, the first year of the In-

vestigation, was 1.7 on a scale in which 1 was unsatisfactory, 2 was satisfactory, and 3 was excellent. In 1942, the last year of the Investigation, the staff's average judgment was 2.8. Likewise, each year in which ratings were made, the staff ranked this behavior as the one most satisfactorily achieved by the majority of the teachers.

Textbooks and reading materials continued to be used and considered important by a majority of the teachers at the close of the Investigation, as the data in Table 37 show. With the exception of textbooks, all other reading materials were used more extensively in 1942 than they had been in 1939. And, with the exception of fiction and current general and social magazines, all were considered more important and valuable in teaching. Only general and social magazines were considered to be of less importance, although novels were not used with any greater enthusiasm in spite of the emphasis placed on the use of dramatic and illustrative materials by the staff of the Investigation.

Principles to Be Used in Selecting Reading Materials

By the close of the Investigation, the participating teachers and administrators were agreed as a result of their experiences in working together that not only should a wide variety of reading materials be used in social-education instruction but teachers should be guided in the selection of such materials by the following principles.

1. Materials Should Vary in Degree of Difficulty

In any group of secondary-school students, even when an attempt has been made at homogeneous grouping, a wide range of reading ability and maturity is found. Studies have shown that in an average group of ninth-graders, for example, students will be found with reading ability ranging from fourth- or fifth-grade level to twelfth or thirteenth. Even at college level this wide variation exists. In one study quoted by Horn, the median college freshman was found to read no better than the upper 15 per cent of the ninth-grade students tested. Only 10 per cent of the college freshmen were better than the best 1 per cent of the high-school freshmen, and 10 per cent of them could not read so well as the median ninth-grader.[1] The wide variation in reading ability found within any one class thus demands the use of a variety of reading materials suited to the reading level of the individuals within the class. No one book or selection can meet the needs of all students within the group, nor will any book be found which can be read with equal ease and understanding by all students. Social-studies materials abound in abstract concepts and generaliza-

TABLE 37

PERCENTAGE OF 22 TEACHERS IN THE STANFORD SOCIAL EDUCATION INVESTIGATION
USING VARIOUS TYPES OF READING MATERIALS AND CONSIDERING THEM
IMPORTANT AND VALUABLE, 1939-1942

MATERIALS	USED				CONSIDERED IMPORTANT AND VALUABLE		
	1939	1940	1941	1942	1940	1941	1942
1. Textbooks.................	90	77	86	86	55	64	64
2. Current general magazines..	86	96	86	90	50	50	45
3. Current news magazines....	77	86	96	90	45	55	59
4. Newspapers...............	77	82	96	90	32	27	41
5. Novels; short stories.......	73	73	86	86	45	59	45
6. Government publications...	59	82	73	100	18	32	27
7. Current social magazines....	50	55	55	55	14	9	5
8. Pamphlet series...........	45	73	59	82	27	23	32

tions often remote from the experience of the students expected to understand them. The difficulties encountered in mastering these concepts are almost insurmountable when the concepts are presented in a language and style far beyond the reading ability of the student. The materials included in the classroom library, therefore, should take into consideration the great variation in reading ability of the student and should provide materials challenging to those with superior reading ability as well as readable by those who find reading difficult.

2. Many Different Kinds of Reading Material Should Be Provided

In order to appeal to the various interests within the group and to stimulate continued and purposeful reading on the part of the students, materials of various kinds should also be included in the classroom library. Textbooks should be supplemented with travel books, biographies, art collections, books dealing with the everyday life of the people being studied, and nontextbook accounts of social issues and problems. Fiction, drama, and poetry also have a place in the classroom library and often help to arouse interest and bring to life a period or an issue which otherwise would always remain a dull and uninteresting topic. Pamphlets, magazines, newspapers, atlases, and

reference books are increasingly important as more and more emphasis is given to problems which are real and meaningful to students.

3. Materials Should Present Various Points of View

If youth are to become skilled in reading and interpreting data and in judging the soundness of the persuasive arguments presented in printed material, they need to have practice in analyzing points of view, weighing arguments, and comparing evidence. To become capable of making mature judgments and skilled in the use of the democratic processes, young people should have experience in analyzing all points of view, in criticizing arguments, and in judging the reliability of evidence. Reading conflicting statements and points of view helps young people to realize that the infallibility of a statement does not depend merely on its being in print. Students will be more balanced in their own social philosophy if they have an opportunity to study a variety of points of view on crucial issues which confront the people of the United States and the world.

The action of school boards and pressure groups in keeping out of the schoolroom books, pamphlets, and magazines that deal with controversial issues or that present points of view not congenial to that prevailing in the community is not only regrettable but disastrous to democratic interests. Democracy rests on the free exchange of opinions and the arrival at conclusions as a result of critical analysis. Demagoguery is more likely to result when democratic citizens are not taught to evaluate carefully new ideas or to weigh and challenge the statements and promises of would-be leaders. Unpopular points of view inevitably will be met by the student sooner or later, and it is better that he learn to arrive at an intelligent understanding of an issue through critical inquiry under the wise direction of a competent and impartial teacher than that he be left to find his own way through the maze of truths, half-truths, and misrepresentations which he is likely to meet on all sides after he leaves the schoolroom.

4. Materials Should Provide for Expanding and Maturing Interests

That many students can read with understanding materials which are apparently more difficult and technical than their textbooks is observed by teachers every day. What high-school boy cannot speak of airplanes in technical language which frequently leaves his social-studies teacher bewildered and baffled? Because of his interest in airplanes he is motivated to master the vocabulary necessary to understand them. When interest is lacking, however, he exerts little effort to get the meaning from even a less difficult passage.

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If, as adults, students now in the classroom are to be interested in reading about social problems and concerned with social issues, teachers of social education will need to broaden classroom experiences so that the material in textbooks is as challenging and fascinating to students as that which they are now reading on airplanes. Words on a printed page ". . . are wholly symbolic. Only in so far as they are related to the experience of the reader can they either convey correct ideas or stimulate their construction. Unless so related, even statements of the simplest and most concrete matters are unintelligible."[2] Reading material is thus better understood when it is related to the interests of students and to things which they know and have experienced. While it is true that differences in interests and experiences call for a variety of reading materials, it is equally important to provide different kinds in order to broaden and develop worth-while interests. Thus more complete accounts, dramatic presentations, and rich and colorful materials not found in the usual high-school textbook need to be included in the classroom library to stimulate new interests and, at the same time, provide for expanding and maturing interests already possessed.

5. Materials Should Be Attractive and Interesting

It is no longer difficult to find books which are both attractive and interesting, for the newer textbooks in the social studies are pleasing both to look at and to read. Full-page colored pictures are to be found in many textbooks; pictures showing processes, graphs, charts, and pictographs enliven the text as do more and better maps. The content is richer and more interesting. Less emphasis is given to minute details of military and political history of little contemporary significance, and more space is devoted to descriptions of the economic and social life of the people and to recent and contemporary history. Nontextual reading materials used in the classroom should also be as attractive and interesting as it is possible to find.

6. Materials Should Be Used That Lead to Self-Dependence in the Location of Information

In a complex and rapidly changing world no one can memorize while in school the information that he will require during the remainder of his life. If a student is to become a good citizen, an effective worker, an intelligent consumer, a worthy family member, and a healthy and happy person, he must be able to continue securing information on his problems and interests after he leaves school. This requires self-dependence in the location of social and cultural materials. Hence, social-studies instruction should include experience in the use

of all types of reference aids which will assist an individual in becoming self-dependent in the location of reading material which he needs now and will need in later life.

7. Nonacademic Materials Should Also Be Included

If social education is to help boys and girls develop interests and reading habits which will be lasting, it is important that students have an opportunity to read and discuss books and magazines which people use in normal everyday activities as they go about their business and solve their problems. According to this principle, current-events teaching should not be limited to papers and magazines prepared primarily for classroom use but should include also magazines which students are likely to find on the newsstand or in their homes and which they will enjoy in adult life. Books used should not be limited to textbooks or school editions of the so-called "classics" but should include popular fiction, drama, and nonfiction as well.

The application of these seven criteria to the selection of the classroom library would provide for individual differences in intelligence, reading ability, interests, experiences, and maturity; it would develop a deep and abiding interest in reading about social issues and problems which should expand and mature and not stop when high-school days are over.

Use and Evaluation of Textbooks

Status of Textbook Teaching

As is stated in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, "The use of textbooks is almost universal among social studies teachers. Numerous investigations have demonstrated this fact conclusively, although some of them seem to indicate that the practice of adhering to a single textbook is diminishing slightly in recent years."[3] Likewise, the textbook recitation is still the most commonly used method of instruction at all levels from the primary grades to college.[4] Wilson found in the survey of 384 representative teachers in the state of New York that most of them used recitation, informal discussion, and directed study based largely upon a textbook.[5] Even though other studies substantiate Wilson's findings,[6] the survey of social-studies instructions conducted by the National Education Association in 1936-37 indicated that teachers are no longer enthusiastic about this kind of instruction. While 15.6 per cent of the senior high school teachers reported they were using the textbook recitation, only 2.1 per cent preferred that type of instruction and only 10.4 per cent of those who used the textbook

method would continue to do so if they had an opportunity to change (see Table 38).

Since the National Education Association questionnaire was sent only to recommended teachers, it is probable that the teachers who replied to the questionnaire were not representative and that textbook teaching is both more common and more popular than is indicated by this study.[7] So firmly is the textbook established as the most essential material in social-studies instruction that only those who engage in wishful thinking believe that its use will be discontinued in the very near future. Horn believes that

one needs to be romantically optimistic to expect that the use of textbooks will vanish in this generation. . . . The absence or meagerness of library equipment and the inferior training of the poorer half of teachers in the schools of the country indicate that the text must be the basis of instruction until better teachers are secured and more adequate references provided. Nor is the use of the textbook limited to schools that are inferior in their teaching staff and library facilities. Investigations of the methods used by gifted teachers of social studies show that a high type of discussion or of question-and-answer recitation, based in some degree upon textbooks, plays a leading rôle in the practice of most of them.[8]

Limitations of Textbook Teaching

Textbook teaching is deplorable on many counts, and it is safe to assume that its widespread use is one of the primary reasons why the social studies have fallen into such low repute. To the superior student

TABLE 38

PERCENTAGE OF JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS
USING AND PREFERRING VARIOUS INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES AND
THOSE PREFERRING THE TECHNIQUE WHICH THEY ARE NOW USING*

TECHNIQUE	USING		PREFERRING		SATISFIED	
	Jr. High Teachers	Sr. High Teachers	Jr. High Teachers	Sr. High Teachers	Jr. High Teachers	Sr. High Teachers
1. Textbook recitation.....	7.6	15.6	0.8	2.1	10.3	10.4
2. Socialized recitation.....	37.0	33.4	12.8	16.3	23.4	32.2
3. Individual activities.....	13.2	12.6	13.0	16.2	36.2	39.2
4. Group activities.........	15.9	12.8	56.4	47.8	84.9	82.5
5. Various combinations of 1, 2, 3, and 4.........	25.2	25.0	16.2	17.3	....	....
6. Unclassified............	1.1	0.6	0.8	0.3	....	....

* *Source:* National Education Association, Research Division, *Improving Social Studies Instruction*, Research Bulletin, Vol. XV, No. 5 (Washington: The Association, November 1937), pp. 211-213.

nothing can be more deadly than to spend a class period reiterating what has already been learned by reading the book. The slower student, on the other hand, generally finds the textbook dull and uninteresting not only because he often cannot understand what he reads, but because he frequently can see no relation between what he reads and what he needs to know in daily living. True, the lazy student finds an assignment of three or four pages in the textbook much easier than one which requires research on his own initiative.

The chief defects in textbook teaching in the social studies, by which is meant some form of question-and-answer recitation based on the reading of a single text, may be summarized as follows:

1. It is deadly to the good student to follow textbook reading with a dis-
 · cussion in which no new material is introduced.
2. It is impossible to find a single text suited to the interests and abilities of all the students in a group.
3. It does not encourage the development of initiative and self-direction to assign students three or four pages in a textbook.
4. It limits the scope of the course and does not encourage students to work up to their maximum ability.
5. It encourages belief in the infallibility of the printed page and reliance upon a single authority.
6. It provides little opportunity for students to compare and evaluate different points of view and develop critical-mindedness.
7. It encourages bad reading habits in students and rote memorization.
8. It tends to routinize procedure—so many pages to be read followed by recitation and a quiz on what was read.

Use of the Textbook

In spite of these glaring defects in textbook teaching, good textbooks are valuable and necessary equipment for teachers of social education, if used correctly, and their use should not be discouraged.[9] Good textbooks provide such things as the following:

1. A well-organized survey of the area being studied to which students can go for basic information
2. Pictures, maps, charts, graphs, and similar aids to extend knowledge, appreciation, and interests
3. Activities that encourage reflection on the part of students and stimulate them to seek additional information in other materials and through nonreading experiences
4. Bibliographies that suggest additional reading
5. Aids such as a table of contents and an index which give practice in locating information in a book
6. Material which the teacher can use in providing a common background for the class, common experiences in such skills as the location of in-

·formation in a book, and a guide in achieving comprehensiveness and balance

7. Material which is easily accessible and can be utilized when other materials are not available
8. An account written by a recognized authority, carefully checked and edited

Fortunately the new textbooks are far superior to those used even a decade ago. Better scholarship, greater accuracy, and a more interesting presentation of material characterize the newer books. The number of pictures, maps, graphs, and visual aids of one kind or another in proportion to the number of pages has increased greatly. The format, print, and make-up of the printed page all tend to stimulate interest and encourage reading. Social-studies textbooks still tend to be written by college professors of history, geography, and economics, but the increasing number of books written in coöperation with high-school teachers and administrators shows a growing attempt to provide textbooks suited to the abilities and interests of young people without sacrificing the scholarship which subject-matter experts can provide. This trend is shown in two studies reported by Wesley: the first reported in 1937 and the second, an unpublished study reported in the revised edition of his book, *Teaching the Social Studies,* published in 1942 (see Table 39).

With the use of these new and improved textbooks the social-studies teacher can plan his course to meet the needs of his particular group of students. Instead of one textbook in the hands of all students he will undoubtedly want several texts differing in emphasis and reading difficulty. Nor will he necessarily want his class to start on page 1 and proceed through the book page by page. The use of several texts

TABLE 39
AUTHORSHIP OF SOCIAL-STUDIES TEXTBOOKS*

	1937	1942
Total number of textbooks......................	52	43
Total number of authors........................	86	84
College professor of subject.....................	68.6%	45.2%
Professors of education.........................	11.6%	5.9%
Secondary teachers.............................	16.4%	26.2%
School administrators and others................	2.3%	22.7%

* *Source of data:* Edgar B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1937), p. 287, and (the second edition, 1942), p. 377.

may suggest to students as well as teachers that different organizations may be used; that some books are better for some topics than others; and that no one book contains all that is known about the history of the world or the history of any one country, or all that can be said on a single topic.

Textbooks may thus be used as references to which students can go for the basic information needed in developing units of work or in gathering the information needed in solving problems. They are reservoirs of information, organized in a logical and comprehensive manner and relatively easy for the young student to use as he develops good habits of study and research.

A second use to which teachers may wish to put textbooks—and in this case the use of a single text may be justified—is to give the common background of experience so necessary in introducing a unit. After reading the material in a textbook, students can proceed to explore their special interests either individually or in committees, better equipped not only to see the relationship of their special project to that of the group as a whole, but to understand the report of findings made by others. The teacher and the students thus have a common core of understanding on which to proceed with the study of the historic period, problem, or topic. In this connection it should be pointed out that whereas textbooks tend to emphasize different aspects of a culture or different trends in the development of civilization, so one textbook may serve admirably in giving the common background of experience necessary for one unit but be inadequate in another. This fact again points out the need for several good texts and the inability of one to meet all the demands which the teacher has for it.

Third, the teacher finds good textbooks invaluable in presenting specific material necessary for an understanding of the unit. Maps, graphs, or statistical tables presented in a particular textbook may be the basis for a day's discussion. The way in which a topic is presented in another text may be so dramatic that the teacher will want all students to read it; or a complicated topic such as feudalism may be presented so clearly and simply in one textbook that that text becomes basic to that particular phase of the unit. For this reason, many teachers desire class sets of several textbooks so that each student may have access to the same book when the occasion demands but will not be limited to the use of that book for all assignments.

Criteria for Selecting Textbooks

Since textbooks are the most valuable tool for teaching which teachers possess and the one most widely used, great care should be

exercised in selecting them. The following principles, if observed, should prove helpful.

Several different textbooks, varying in difficulty, manner of organization, and point of view, should be used.—This principle is similar to several of those which govern the selection of reading materials in general, and it takes into account individual differences existing within the classroom. It is particularly necessary that this principle be observed if the teacher hopes to develop in his students the ability to use books, to be self-directing and resourceful in finding information for themselves, and to be critical-minded.

The accuracy and fair-mindedness with which historical and social data are presented and interpreted should never be sacrificed for interest or dramatic appeal.—Inaccuracy of statements and facts, prejudice and bigotry, should never be tolerated in textbooks, and the highest standards of scholarship should be demanded of all textbook writers. Textbooks should also be up to date. Even though much improvement has been made in the scholarship and accuracy of recent textbooks, a lag of "five to twenty-five years between the announcement of a new discovery or viewpoint in historical scholarship and its incorporation in American history texts" has been found to exist.[10] This, of course, should not be tolerated.

The care with which modern textbooks are edited and published has eliminated much slipshod scholarship, but teachers need to be certain that the textbooks used in their classrooms are accurate. If teachers are not well enough trained to make their own appraisal or to recognize inaccuracies when they see them, they will need to rely on books published by reputable publishing houses and on book reviews written by competent and reliable persons.

Textbooks should be suitable to the maturity and ability of the majority of the students who are to use them.—Too frequently textbooks are too difficult both in vocabulary and in concept for the majority of students for whom they are intended. This is borne out by recent research and is truer at the secondary level than at the elementary.[11] College textbooks are seldom suited to either the maturity or the reading ability of the average tenth- or eleventh-grade student, and yet college textbooks are used almost exclusively in some social-studies classes. The ability of students to use the words in the text does not necessarily mean that they understand them. Verbalization without real understanding usually results when books which are too difficult are used. Thus greater care should be exercised in examining the vocabulary, sentence structure, organization, and physical make-up of a book to see that these aid rather than hinder learning.

The study aids contained in the book should be of such a nature and in sufficient quantity to facilitate learning.—The adequacy of the index may determine the usefulness of a book in a class where students are learning to find their own references. Maps, pictures, graphs, statistical tables, time lines, and charts of various kinds add to or detract from the value of a text depending upon the number and kind which are used and whether they are an integral or extraneous part of the text. Glossaries, the marking of new and unusual words either in the text or in the index, appendixes, and bibliographies all help to make books more useful. The presence or absence of such study aids, the amount of space given to them, and the clarity and attractiveness with which they are presented should all be considered in selecting a textbook.

Textbooks should be selected on the basis of the objectives of the course.—If one of the stated or implied objectives is to arouse a deep, on-going interest in social problems and another is to stimulate a love for reading, then the textbooks selected should be attractive and interesting so that students will enjoy reading them. If the ability to think critically is an objective, then textbooks which are prolific in generalizations may not be so desirable as those which present all sides of a problem or which encourage students to make their own summarization and draw their own conclusions. Teachers who make page or paragraph assignments may not be so concerned about the adequacy of the index as those who emphasize the development of self-direction on the part of their students. Concern about contemporary events and recent history will cause some teachers to seek texts which give more space to recent history than may be thought important by those who follow a more strictly chronological approach, while emphasis upon social and economic progress will cause teachers to prefer histories stressing educational, religious, scientific, and industrial progress even at the expense of political and military history.

Scale for Appraising Textbooks

Classroom teachers should of course have a voice in the selection of the textbooks which they are to use. In many schools, the choice is made by a committee of teachers or by the joint action of the teachers in a department or of those teaching the subject in which the textbook is to be used. Unfortunately, in some states, the textbooks used are state adopted and may be chosen by those little qualified to pass judgment on competing books. The selection of appropriate texts would be facilitated and would be less haphazard if a scale somewhat similar to the one suggested on the opposite page were used as a basis for examining textbooks. As judgments were made on each item, the rating could be entered on the score card. The committee or the teacher

SCALE FOR APPRAISING TEXTBOOKS

NAME OF BOOK		RATINGS	PERCENTAGE OF SPACE GIVEN TO *
Author	Title	Publisher / Date of Pub. or Revision / Author's Position / Size, No. of Pages / Attractiveness, General Appeal / Type—Size, Readability / Freedom from Bias / Scholarship / Table of Contents / Listing of Maps and Pictures / Glossary / Index / Appendix / Bibliography / Unusual Words Marked / Maps / Pictures / Graphs and Charts / Type of Organization / Visual Aids / Suitability to Reading Level	

Ratings: 0—None; 1—Very Poor; 2—Poor; 3—Fair; 4—Good; 5—Excellent

Author's Position: C.P. (College Professor); P.E. (Professor of Education); C.T. (Classroom Teacher); S.A. (School Administrator)

Type of Organization: C—Chronological; T—Topical; P—Problems; U—Units

* Headings here should be determined by units making up course or by categories making up scope of curriculum.

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would thus have a handy reference to use when the final selections had to be made and textbooks selected. Each school would of course want to develop its own check list in terms of the purposes for which the textbooks were to be used. The items included would naturally vary according to the course and the type of textbooks being examined. This would be particularly true in examining the content of the textbook. The items in the section of the scale dealing with content might well conform either to the units making up the course or to the categories used in defining the scope of the curriculum.[12]

Supplementary Books

Good textbooks have always needed to be supplemented and enriched by books which treat aspects of a problem or a period of history with greater detail than a textbook is able to do. A well-equipped classroom library, social-studies laboratory, or high-school library will have many of these books dealing with all topics likely to be of interest to students and to warrant further investigation. The same general principles should apply to books of this kind as apply to textbooks in that they should vary in difficulty, in point of view, in emphasis, and in kind; they should be accurate as to fact and interpretation, and suitable to the maturity and ability of those who use them; they should contain adequate indexes, pictures, maps, or other study aids; and they should conform to the objectives of the course and be attractive and interesting. Books such as Davis, *A Day in Old Athens* and *A Day in Old Rome;* Tappan, *When Knights Were Bold;* Fay, *Origins of the World War;* Madelin, *The French Revolution;* Quennel and Quennel, *History of Everyday Things in England;* and "The Chronicles of America" and "The Pageant of America" series are books of this type.

Wesley offers a few "royal roads to reading" which teachers may use as guides in choosing books for their own use.[13] These suggestions should also prove helpful in selecting books for the social-studies laboratory.

1. Pay careful attention to the name of the author.
2. Pay careful and critical attention to the exact titles of books.
3. Build up a consciousness of publishers.
4. Become date conscious, and unless the book has been rather thoroughly revised, the significant date is the year of the original copyright.
5. Read the preface carefully.
6. Examine the table of contents critically.
7. Utilize the index and look up topics, names, words, and issues and read the passages indicated.
8. Examine the apparatus at the ends of the chapters.
9. Read carefully a few extended passages.[14]

It is not enough to buy supplementary books for the school library. They need to be in the classroom where students can see and handle them if they are to be read and enjoyed. Furthermore, supplementary lists should be supplied to students with each unit of work so that they are aware of the books which will enrich their textbook reading and broaden their understanding. Students can often participate in making these lists. They derive considerable pleasure from finding books which they can introduce to their classmates as both interesting and informative.

However, books of this kind should not be considered as purely supplementary, to be read only for special reports or for outside or collateral reading. They should be an integral part of the classroom equipment and should be used in the same way in which textbooks are used—as sources for gathering information needed in the development of units of work. They differ from textbooks in that they give fuller accounts of particular topics, are not used continuously throughout the course, are often more interesting to read, and are not written in textbook form.

Source materials also come under this category. The use of primary sources in secondary schools should be handled carefully, especially in general-education courses. Few high-school students aspire to be trained historians; most are incapable of reading and understanding treaties, state papers, and the like even if they are interested. The amount and type of source material used should depend on the class and the objectives which it hopes to achieve. Traditional collections of historical sources have not been highly popular with students or teachers nor have they been used generally with any great success. More interesting to students are local history sources and collections of letters, diaries, and speeches which give reality and add drama to the study of human relations. *The Democratic Spirit,* edited by Bernard Smith[15] and *The Heritage of America,* edited by Henry Commager and Allan Nevins,[16] are the type of source collections which should have a place in the classroom library. Robert Keohane has been exerting leadership recently in the use of source materials, and his work may lead to their more effective employment.[17]

Pamphlet Materials

With more time and attention being given to contemporary problems and social issues, pamphlet material has also become popular for classroom use. There are several reasons for this. It is easier to get current materials in pamphlet form than in textbooks, which obviously cannot be revised each year or which, even if they could, cannot be

discarded and new ones purchased whenever a few pages of new material are added. Then, too, the instability of courses of study and the emphasis placed on flexibility to meet the needs and interests of young people have made it almost impossible for textbook writers and publishers to produce books which can meet all the demands of all communities. Pamphlets, unitexts, and units of various kinds thus have come to be used widely to supplement the textbooks and keep them flexible and up to date. The inexpensive nature of these materials also makes them accessible to many communities which could not afford to buy supplementary books in any great quantity. Schools also are often more willing to buy pamphlets than books because not so much money is invested and thus the loss is not so great if a unit is not repeated and if the materials purchased are used only once.

Pamphlet materials make possible the sharing of material by two or more teachers. Materials for one unit may be collected, used, and returned to the library or social-studies laboratory when the unit is completed. This material is then available for use in another classroom if a similar unit or problem is being studied. In schools where the same subject is taught by several teachers, great economy can thus be exercised by building up class sets of materials for specific units—such as conservation, housing, health, consumer education—and by allowing these to circulate among the teachers as needed. More material and greater flexibility are thus obtained.

Pamphlet material has, of course, its defects and shortcomings. The great numbers of pamphlets available for school use at relatively low cost make it difficult for teachers to be familiar with all of them and to separate the chaff from the grain. Some of them are excellent and deserve a place in all social-education classrooms which deal with contemporary problems. Some of them, however, are poorly written, inaccurate, highly prejudiced, and entirely unsuited for classroom use. The same standards of scholarship, adaptability to the maturity and reading level of the group, variety, adequacy of study aids, and conformity to class objectives need to be used in selecting pamphlet material as in selecting books.

It is impossible to mention here all the sources to which one may turn for pamphlet materials. However, the following agencies and institutions issue pamphlets which social-education teachers have found valuable and with which all should be familiar:[18]

American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1 East 54th St., New York
American Council on Public Affairs, 2153 Florida Ave., Washington, D. C.
America's Town Meeting of the Air, printed copies of programs broadcast,
    distributed by Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York

American Civil Liberties Union, 170 Fifth Ave., New York

American Education Press, 400 South Front St., Columbus, Ohio

American Society for the Control of Cancer, 350 Madison Ave., New York

American National Red Cross, Washington, D. C.

American Public Health Association, 1790 Broadway, New York

American Federation of Labor, 901 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, D. C.

Brookings Institution, 722 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington, D. C.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 West 117th St., New York

Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington, D. C.

Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, 45 W. 65th St., New York

Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Building America*, published by Americana Corporation, 2 West 45th St., New York

Farrar, Straus & Co., 580 Fifth Ave., New York 19

Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 22 East 38th St., New York (Foreign Policy Bulletins, Pamphlets, Headline Books)

National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D. C. ("Problems in American Life" series)

National Municipal League, 299 Broadway, New York ("You and Your Government" series)

National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Ave., New York

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 69 Fifth Ave., New York

National Civil Service Reform League, 521 Fifth Ave., New York

National Association of Manufacturers, 14 West 49th St., New York ("You and Industry" series)

National Council for the Prevention of War, 1013 18th St., N.W., Washington, D. C.

National Planning Association, 800 21st St., N.W., Washington, D. C.

National Association of Better Business Bureaus, Inc., Boston, Mass.

National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D. C.

National Tuberculosis Association, 1790 Broadway, New York

Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., New York (Health Pamphlets, "Health Hero" series)

North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (Unit Studies), distributed by Ginn & Co., New York

Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

Penguin Books, Inc., New York

Pocket Books, Inc., New York

Public Affairs Committee, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York

Row, Peterson, & Co., Evanston, Ill. (Unitext Series and Social Studies Pamphlets)

Silver, Burdett Co., 45 East 17th St., New York

Survey Graphic ("Calling America" series), 112 East 19th St., New York

Tax Policy League, 309 East 34th St., New York

United States Government Pamphlets—complete list and prices secured from Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Newspapers, Magazines, and Other Current Materials

Newspapers

Since newspapers are one of the chief sources of information for the American public, teachers of social education have a great responsibility for instructing American youth in the art of reading a newspaper intelligently. Persons who read with no discrimination often waste much time in newspaper reading; others who read only the headlines jump to erroneous conclusions. The reader must select the newspapers which he wishes to read and then read discriminatingly within those papers. Those who read several papers morning and night, and read everything in the paper, not only waste time on repetitious accounts of world events but read much that is of little or no interest or value. The reader needs to know what are the important sections of the paper and where to find them.

Instruction in the art of reading the newspaper should be part of the social-education program in all high schools.[10] That this instruction is not given leaves the American public highly susceptible to yellow journalism, rumor, and propaganda and readers of newspapers are unable to distinguish between reliable and unreliable information. Too little use of newspapers is made in social-studies classes as they are now taught. The data from the Student Growth Study conducted by the Stanford Social Education Investigation revealed that the newspaper reading habits of the students in all the participating groups indicated that far too little emphasis had been placed on this behavior in the schools participating in the Study. A large percentage of the students did not read any daily newspaper, and over one fourth of them spent less than three hours a week reading a newspaper. Moreover, the study of American history and contemporary social and political problems seemed to have had little effect on the discrimination with which the students read newspapers. Large numbers of them had no idea of the political policies advocated by the newspaper they read, and few of them read either the editorials or the columnists. Many of them chose a newspaper for the comic strips or because it was a morning or evening paper, regardless of its political or social philosophy or reputation for reliability. The students in all groups preferred "funnies" to the news, sports and radio programs to editorials and columnists. Almost 40 per cent of the students neglected the news section, but only a few ever overlooked the "funnies"; almost 50 per cent read the sports page, but

less than 20 per cent read editorials. That this condition existed in classrooms organized along democratic principles and dedicated to the development of competent democratic citizens leads one to conclude that the newspaper reading habits in other, less selective, classrooms are far worse.[20]

Students should be familiar with a metropolitan paper which specializes in national and world news as well as with the local paper which keeps them informed of important events in the community. They should be acquainted with the writings and opinions of such distinguished columnists and correspondents as Arthur Krock, Anne O'Hare McCormick, Dorothy Thompson, Walter Lippmann, David Lawrence, Mark Sullivan, and Hanson Baldwin, the men and women who interpret the news and do much to mold public opinion. High-school libraries should not only be equipped with the local newspapers and with the best metropolitan newspapers in their community, but they should also subscribe to such well-known national newspapers as the New York *Times*, the *Christian Science Monitor*, and the New York *Herald Tribune*.

It is not enough to have a unit on "How to Read a Newspaper," valuable and instructive as that might be. If the ability to read a newspaper intelligently and with discrimination is to carry over outside the classroom, it needs to become a habit. Newspaper reading should therefore be an integral part of the daily work of the classroom. Continual discussion of outstanding editorials, references to particular columns, comparisons of the opinions expressed by two or more columnists on the same topic, and discussion of outstanding news articles all are constant reminders of the importance of newspaper reading. Thus current events cannot be relegated to one day a week and taught from a paper written for classroom use if intelligent newspaper reading is an objective worth striving for. Classroom newspapers, such as the *American Observer, Weekly News Review, Junior Review,* and *Young Citizen,* published by the Civic Education Service; the *Senior Scholastic, World Week,* and *Junior Scholastic,* published by the Scholastic Corporation; *Current Events, Every Week,* and *Our Times,* published by the American Education Press; *Young America,* published by the Eton Publishing Corporation; and the *Pathfinder,* published by the Pathfinder Publishing Company, might well supplement the reading of the daily newspaper but should not replace it. Daily discussions of current news need not take more than five or ten minutes of the class time, with longer discussions occasionally as the news warrants. Such discussions probably would interfere less with the continuous study of a problem than a day out once a week for current events, and they have

the added advantage of keeping students interested in daily newspape
reading so that the habit becomes well-fixed.

Magazines

Discriminating and intelligent magazine readers are also essentia
for effective citizenship in a democracy. Social progress is dependent i:
part on an enlightened and informed electorate. Through magazine
in which social programs and problems are critically analyzed, di:
cussed, and interpreted, citizens may obtain much of the informatio:
and insight necessary for social competency.

Wert asserts that "the assumption has been made by several investiga
tors that the quality of reading which a group may do, can be estimate
by evaluating the quality of magazine reading material only."[2]
Magazines, he believes, are better for group evaluation than book reac
ing for several reasons: (1) magazine reading is more prevalent tha:
book reading; and although new magazines appear from time to tim(
the quality of any one magazine varies little from year to year and th
policies of the magazine tend to remain the same since the publisher
aim to appeal to the same public; (2) magazine reading remains rathe
stable and continuous; and (3) the large number of magazines read b
a group also tend to give a more satisfactory degree of representativene:
and adequacy when applied to group diagnosis. Wert therefore d(
veloped a scale for evaluating the quality of magazines in terms of th
individuals who read them. For his scale a magazine was judged to b
superior if it had a better type of reader, defined in terms of bett(
scholastic aptitude, better English proficiency, and better knowledg
of contemporary affairs. On the basis of the magazines read by th
6981 college students who participated in the investigation carried o
by Wert, each magazine was given an index number. The *Saturda*
Evening Post, because of its large reading public, was used as the ba:
and was assigned the index number 100. Table 40 gives the inde
numbers assigned by Wert to thirty-nine magazines. To all juvenil(
adventure, and detective-story magazines he gave an index numb(
of 40. The "typical" high-school reading level Wert found to be som(
what lower than *Liberty*, and, in any particular grade, the readin
level of girls was slightly higher than boys. Entering college freshme:
according to his study, have an average reading level about that of th
Saturday Evening Post. While the reading level for upperclassmen w:
found to be considerably higher, that of the adult population sample
was only a little better than the *Saturday Evening Post*.

The data from the Stanford Growth Study bear out Wert's concl:
sions. The mean reading level for the three groups on which data we:

gathered was 77 for the junior group, using the chronological approach; 76 for the senior topical group; and 83 for the senior-problems group.[22] These are only slightly higher than the reading level found by Wert for high-school students. The evidence from the Stanford Study would indicate that even those teachers who were using the problems approach were having little effect on the magazine reading habits of their students. Only 34 per cent of the students in the chronological group, 42 per cent of those in the topical group, and 56 per cent of seniors using the problems approach thought that the school had had any effect on their magazine reading habits. Of the juniors who said *Yes* to the item in the questionnaire asking if classroom instruction had had any effect on their magazine reading, 33 per cent listed only the *American Observer, Scholastic,* or *Reader's Digest* as the magazine they read as a result of their school experience. The senior-problems group seemed to have been introduced to more magazines, because they listed some thirty magazines with which they had become acquainted during the school year. Nevertheless, the majority of students had little or no acquaintance with the better monthly magazines. The only magazines read regularly by even a fourth of them at the end of the study were *Time* and *Life* by the topical group and *Life* and *Reader's Digest* by

TABLE 40*
INDEX NUMBERS OF MAGAZINE QUALITY
(*Saturday Evening Post* = 100)

Name of Magazine	Index Number	Name of Magazine	Index Number
American	97	New Outlook	145
American Home	72	New Republic	265
American Mercury	207	New Yorker	191
Atlantic Monthly	159	Pathfinder	90
Collier's	99	Photoplay	65
Cosmopolitan	121	Pictorial Review	91
Country Gentleman	77	Popular Mechanics	65
Current History	176	Popular Science	76
Delineator	87	Reader's Digest	111
Esquire	127	Redbook	93
Fortune	147	Review of Reviews	111
Forum	140	Saturday Evening Post	100
Good Housekeeping	95	Scientific American	96
Harper's	143	Scribner's	155
Ladies' Home Journal	96	Time	106
Liberty	72	Today	200
Literary Digest	91	True Story	34
McCall's	92	Vogue	118
Nation	208	Woman's Home Companion	77
National Geographic	120		

* *Source:* James E. Wert, "A Technique for Determining Levels of Group Reading," *Educational Research Bulletin*, Vol. XVI, No. 4 (May 19, 1937), p. 120.

the chronological group. If the evidence gathered on these groups by means of the Library and Sources of Information Test is indicative of the kind of training high-school students in general are having in magazine reading, too many graduates are leaving high school ill-prepared to use magazines intelligently and with discrimination in seeking information about current problems.

Teachers of social education have the responsibility for raising the level of magazine reading among the general public by acquainting their students with many of the better periodicals and by developing in them the habit of turning to weekly magazines for summaries and interpretations of the news and to monthly periodicals for a more careful and thoughtful analysis of social problems and programs. Every high-school student should know how to use the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* and should use it constantly throughout his high-school course in locating articles in connection with his class work. Too frequently students leave high school without any knowledge whatsoever of how to use this valuable library tool.

In the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards conducted under the direction of Walter Crosby Eells, 200 secondary-school librarians reported the magazines received regularly in their libraries; 17,338 students reported the magazines they read regularly and the ones they enjoyed and valued; and 160 selected librarians reported the magazines they considered essential for a high-school library. Thirty-eight magazines appeared on all four lists.[23] With the aid of these lists and the combined judgments of a number of expert school librarians, Fargo compiled a core list of magazines for junior and senior high schools.[24] Her list differs considerably from the list recommended by Myer and Coss for senior high school social-studies classes,[25] as is evident when the lists are compared. Only ten of the magazines appear on both lists (see starred items). Fargo's list, of course, is for the total high school, while the magazines recommended by Myer and Coss are those which they consider best for use in current-history classes or by those persons who are interested in social problems. Both lists should be suggestive to teachers of social education.

Core List of Magazines for School Libraries

Junior High School

American Boy	*Current History	Popular Aviation
American Girl	Hygeia	Popular Mechanics
American Observer	Junior Scholastic	Popular Science
*Asia	*National Geographic	Radio News
Boy's Life	Nature Magazine	St. Nicholas
Building America	Photo History	School Art Magazine

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American City
American Forest
American Observer
Arts and Decoration
*Asia
*Atlantic Monthly
Building America
Congressional Digest
*Current History
Good Housekeeping
*Harper's Magazine
Hygeia

Illustrated London News
Industrial Arts
Leisure
*National Geographic
Natural History
Nature Magazine
*New Republic
New York Times
   (Sunday edition)
*Newsweek
Photo History
Popular Aviation

Popular Mechanics
Popular Science
Radio News
*Reader's Digest
Scholastic
School Arts Magazine
School Review
Scientific American
*Survey Graphic
*Time
Travel

Magazines Recommended by Myer and Coss

*Harper's Magazine
*The New Republic
*Survey Graphic
*Time
*Newsweek
United States News
Foreign Affairs
*National Geographic
*Asia
Fortune
The Annals
Life
*Reader's Digest

*Current History
The Nation
Common Sense
*The Atlantic Monthly
Collier's
Saturday Evening Post
Business Week
Yale Review
Nation's Business
Free America
Free World
Current Biography

If the principles suggested at the beginning of this chapter were applied in determining the magazines to be used in social education, a wide selection of magazines varying in difficulty, point of view, emphasis, and kind would need to be included. For many students, high school is the only place where they will have an opportunity to be exposed to magazines of the monthly-review type. Unfortunately college education also tends to neglect this important phase of an individual's education. For those students who do not come from privileged and cultured homes where the better magazines are read, the high school has an obligation not only to acquaint them with better magazines, but to help them in developing the habit of reading and enjoying periodicals in which social problems are discussed.

When it is possible to include magazines in the classroom library, students should have an opportunity to help in their selection. Early in the school year, each student might take the responsibility for introducing a magazine to the class. This could be done by an oral

presentation in which the student would present the magazine and answer such questions as:

Who is the editor?
When was the magazine first published?
For what class of readers is it written?
What kind of articles does it carry?
Is it illustrated? If so, with what kind of illustrations?
What kind of advertisements does it carry, if any?
What special features, if any, does the magazine have?
What is the general style and make-up of the magazine?
What is the social and political philosophy supported by the magazine?

After the magazines have been exhibited and discussed and the class has had an opportunity to inspect them, the students can make a more intelligent selection of the magazines they want purchased.

Literature and Drama

Literature helps young people to experience vicariously those things which they would otherwise be prevented from knowing because of time or space. Historical events become alive again through the pages of a good short story, a novel, or an exciting play. Literature, as was pointed out in Chapter 8, can be used at all stages of unit teaching. It can be used effectively in introducing the unit by arousing interest, raising questions, and stimulating discussion. It is equally effective during the developmental phase of unit study in keeping interest high, in exploring customs and modes of living; and in making the culture, period, or problem really live. Literature has less value as a culminating experience unless it comes as a natural culmination—an experience toward which all unit activity has focused and which has been so satisfying culturally and intellectually that nothing more can be said. Merely reading a piece of literature, or hearing it read, does not constitute this culmination for the student. Seeing a play acted on the stage might culminate a unit if the class has studied a play in order that they might derive greater satisfaction from seeing it. Creative writing is usually a better culminating experience than reading or hearing a story or play written by someone else.

Literature is used in social education primarily because of the social problems which are presented, the imaginative presentation of a historical period or the life of people in another culture, its power in arousing interest, the human relationships portrayed, or the revelation of motives and forces which cause people to behave as they do. Literature for literature's sake has no place in social education, but literature when used as a measure for understanding social forces and human

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ehavior has a definite and important rôle to play in all social-studies lassrooms.

The recent popularity of historical novels has resulted in adding many excellent books to the ever-growing list of novels and plays useful n social-studies instruction. Early American history can practically ie relived through books, such as Van Wyck Mason's *Three Harbors* nd *Stars on the Sea;* Inglis Fletcher's *Men of Albemarle* and *Raleigh's 'den;* Elizabeth Page's *Tree of Liberty;* Kenneth Roberts' *Northwest 'assage;* and Esther Forbes' *Johnny Tremain.* Likewise, poems, such s Carl Sandburg's *The People, Yes,* Stephen Vincent Benét's *John lrown's Body,* and Edgar Lee Masters' *Spoon River Anthology,* teach much of the spirit and temper of the American people. *Abe Lincoln of llinois* and *The American Way* give students an appreciation of American traditions, while through plays such as *Our Town* and *Porgy* they et unforgettable pictures of sections of American life which they can et in no other way.

Novels, plays, and poems should be chosen in accordance with the general principles applying to all types of reading materials. Students n a course in American history can make much growth toward the achievement of the following objectives if novels, plays, and poetry ire selected wisely and used continuously throughout the course.

To read widely for pleasure and for information
To gain a greater appreciation of American traditions
To understand the forces which produced America
To appreciate the problems and cultures of various minority groups in the United States
To understand how people lived in colonial and pioneer days
To appreciate the sacrifices and hardships endured by those who built America

In general-education courses where English and social studies are combined, literature can be used extensively to explain human behavior and to give an insight into social and personal problems. Social education thus becomes greatly enriched; and as the significance of the problems studied is made more obvious, they become more challenging. Literature used in this way is functional and not sterile; it has a purpose to perform and its use is recognized. As a result, American youth will, it is hoped, leave high school not hating the "classics" and reading in general but wanting to read more widely for the pleasure that it gives them, the understanding and information they obtain, and the insight they receive into human behavior and the meaning and significance of life.

The Library

The library should be the heart of any secondary school, and the librarian should be a member of all curriculum and policy-making committees. The library should be a place to which young people go to use books—to browse, to read for pleasure and recreation, to study, and to do research. It should never be used as a meeting place for gangs and cliques or for social gatherings, nor should it be used as a "study hall." To use the library as a place to which students are sent because of misconduct in the classroom or as a place to which they are assigned for study is to misuse it and to fill it with students who are not interested in using its facilities. Such use of the library keeps other students from going to the library for the legitimate purpose of using books and reference material. The use of the librarian's time in keeping order and taking roll is expensive both educationally and financially. The library should be a place to which students go frequently and of their own volition to do research, gather information, and read for pleasure under the most favorable circumstances. These include a pleasant, quiet, and friendly atmosphere; a librarian with ample staff to aid students in finding the things they need; and adequate library tools with which to work, including *The Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature,* complete magazine files conveniently and systematically arranged, a good card catalogue which follows conventional methods of classification, and standard reference books and encyclopedias. The modern high-school library will also catalogue and file systematically pamphlets, clippings, audio-visual aids, and miscellaneous, materials.

Recognizing that the coöperation of the librarian is essential to a sound program of social education, the participants in the Stanford Social Education Investigation at the end of their work together drew up the following principles governing the use of the library. These principles, they believed, would facilitate the growth of social competence on the part of students.

1. The selection of materials for both purchase and use should be the coöperative endeavor of all members of the staff, and, as such, should provide opportunity for valuable growth and development.
2. Students should be encouraged to contribute pertinent materials when possible and to make them widely available.
3. Students should develop proficiency in library skills such as the use of the card catalogue, *Readers' Guide, Standard Catalog for High School Libraries, Publishers' Weekly,* etc.
4. Flexible classroom libraries should be utilized according to the needs of the situation. While it may be desirable at a particular time to have

enough copies of a selection so that all students can simultaneously consult it, in general it seems better to have several different sets of materials bearing upon a given area. The assembling of materials in classroom libraries should never become so extensive as to be in violation of the library as the major focal point of materials.

5. Students should use the library with increasing frequency and independence.

6. The library should be used as the focal point for assembling information, active research, and leisure reading under the most favorable circumstances.

7. The library should never be used as a "study hall" or as a place for detention or punishment.

8. The librarian should be called in as a consultant by all curriculum committees, and her assistance should be used in compiling book lists and bibliographies for units and in preparing resource units.

9. Intelligent use of the library by students is the responsibility of all teachers as well as the librarian. Teachers should know what materials are in the library and how they are catalogued before they send students to use them. Furthermore, they must make use of activities calling for library research if they expect students to grow in the ability to use library techniques or to develop the habit of reading periodicals or using reference books.[26]

Social-Studies Laboratory

Some schools have found it useful to organize social-studies materials according to units and to keep these materials in a separate room, generally called a "social-studies laboratory," where students can use them easily. Usually the social-studies laboratory is adjacent to the library so that the librarian can supervise the circulation of books from the laboratory as well as from the main library. The books in the laboratory are catalogued in the library's card catalogue and are considered part of the library resources. They are housed separately merely to facilitate their use. This was true at the Menlo School and Junior College, where the laboratory opened out of the main library. Located as an annex to the library, the laboratory required no separate librarian and the books were checked in and out from the central desk.

In other schools the laboratory may be near the social-studies classrooms with the circulation of books in the hands of social-studies students supervised by social-studies teachers. At Eugene, Oregon, for example, the laboratory was located between the two senior-problems classrooms. A book window opened into each classroom, while a third opened onto the corridor. A student was on duty at the beginning and end of each class period, during lunch hour, and before and after

school. For these two classrooms, separate libraries were unnecessary; the students checked books from the laboratory for use in the classroom.

The decentralization of library facilities has undesirable features, however, in that it may lead to extravagance in the purchase of books and materials unless ordering is done through the regular library channels; it may cause social-studies teachers to look upon the materials as their special property and thus encourage further departmentalization and the attitude of vested interests; and it prevents the use of the materials by other departments and teachers, who usually are unaware of the resources and materials in the laboratory unless they are catalogued as part of the regular library.

On the other hand, the laboratory has decided advantages when materials are gathered together and arranged conveniently. The experience at Menlo School and Junior College was that the boys spent hours in the laboratory studying, whereas formerly they had spent so much time searching for materials that little time was left for study. With the laboratory, students are encouraged to use more books and do more research. Committees find the laboratory an excellent place to work together without disturbing the students in the library proper. Whole classes can be taken to the laboratory during the development of a unit, and the rich collection of materials can be used by the students in gathering their information. Ideally, one or more committee rooms would open off the laboratory so that committees could confer about their work.

When rotating classroom libraries are used, the laboratory is particularly valuable. Arranged by units, the books and pamphlet materials can be checked out to teachers during the study of the unit and checked back in when the unit is completed. Teachers find that the laboratory saves hours of their time, for the materials are in one convenient place and can be quickly surveyed in planning new units or in developing new courses.

Where free textbooks are not furnished, some schools have developed the laboratory by means of a social-studies fee card. The card, rather than a textbook, is purchased by the student, and it entitles him to the use of all laboratory materials. The fee is usually considerably less than the cost of a textbook and so is a saving for the student. At the same time the money collected furnishes a fund which can be used by the department to purchase class sets of textbooks, pamphlets, and supplementary materials of various kinds. Thus it provides a convenient fund for the purchase of the new materials so essential if social-studies courses are to be kept up to date and if students and teachers are to deal intelligently with contemporary issues.

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VISUAL AND AUDITORY AIDS

THOMAS EDISON said many years ago that the motion picture would render teachers unnecessary. Other statements made since that time imply a general belief that modern technological advance may make education a matter of using gadgets with vast audiences. But in spite of the success which the Army and Navy had in their training programs during World War II with audio-visual aids, experience has demonstrated quite clearly that mechanical devices alone cannot carry on the teaching process. When best used, they are aids to the skillful teacher and when badly used are inadequate crutches for the poor one.

There are several reasons why the teacher cannot be replaced by mechanical devices. Someone must decide for what educational purposes the new machines are to be employed. Likewise, someone must decide which types of aid—motion picture, slide, radio, phonograph—are best suited for the purpose. Then the selection of the aid and the manner of its use must be thought through in terms of the needs, interests, and capabilities of a given class. And, finally, the teacher is responsible for the continuity of the learning experience, the analysis and discussions by which, alone, students can relate their learning from the film or record to their needs and problems.

However, it is still quite true that even the good teacher, keenly aware of his responsibilities and opportunities, can do a superior job in many instances only if he makes use of the tools given him by modern invention. And these tools include not only the motion picture, but also the glass slide, the kodachrome slide, the map, the film strip, the color print, the radio, the phonograph, and the sound-slide film.

It is important to bear in mind that not all these mediums are equally effective for all purposes under all circumstances. It is impossible and undesirable to state that one of these types of aids is the best, except in relation to certain needs for learning experiences. Attention is given in this chapter, therefore, to the strengths of some of the more important of these aids, with illustrations as to how they might be used in social-studies instruction.

The Motion Picture

The motion picture has certain advantages over other mediums for classroom use in developing social competence.

1. *It presents experience directly.*—The motion picture makes it possible to present experience to students through a direct sensory approach. It is not just the fact that the motion picture presents experience through the eye that makes it unique, for that can also be done with still pictures. But the motion picture, true to its name, makes it possible to present objects in movement.

Accordingly, teachers can overcome limitations of time and space and make available to students experience which could otherwise come only through reading or some other type of symbolism. Through seeing objects in motion, youth have direct sensory experience of life situations in many lands they may never visit and in social environments they may never penetrate. Past events can become real and live again. This in no way diminishes the importance of reading, for that activity is as necessary as ever in the acquisition of information, points of view, interpretations, understandings, and judgments. The motion picture, however, makes it possible for young people to get the raw data against which to form the interpretations derived through reading.

Thus students can draw conclusions based on direct evidence in a given situation. If, for example, one sees *The River,* which contains pictures of the living conditions of children in the Tennessee Valley, he can draw conclusions concerning the standards of living in that section of the United States at the time the picture was taken. Likewise, the presentation of life in substandard housing in the film *Housing in Our Time* gives a basis for drawing conclusions about the housing problem. The student, however, would have to ask two questions: (1) Are the pictures true or are they staged? (2) If true, are they representative of the conditions they seem to portray? If the answer to both of these is *yes,* the student has a better basis for forming judgments about the problems than he has merely by reading statistical data or hearing a verbal presentation.

The motion picture thus helps to combat verbalism, which is one of the ever-present dangers in an educational process depending heavily on symbols. It is possible for the unimaginative citizen to memorize the facts concerning racial and religious persecution as it existed in totalitarian Europe without feeling identified with the people who suffered. For him, the plight of the Jewish refugee is a verbal plight, an abstraction, the reality of which is concealed behind the symbols

of the printed page. Were he to see the March of Time film, *The Refugee—Today and Tomorrow,* the tragedy of the situation might and very likely would impress him in sharpest reality.

This need for vivid experience with faraway events is particularly important for the citizen of an interdependent world. On one hand, the citizens of one part of the world are closely affected by events in other parts. On the other hand, modern life is so specialized and diversified that even citizens of the same community find it difficult to appreciate one another's problems. This failure in understanding is one of the factors promoting cultural lag. The motion picture can help the student get a vivid identification with problems which, on the surface, seem far removed from his environment but which actually are of direct concern to him and his happiness. An example of this type of problem is the one of minority persecutions and displaced persons already mentioned.

2. *It dramatizes experience.*—Another major strength of the motion picture is its power of dramatization. Utilizing music and poetic commentary, the film producer can transform the most drab and commonplace aspects of everyday life into exciting and thrilling stories. This dramatizing function is particularly important in the development of desired value patterns. It is illustrated in such films as *The Plow That Broke the Plains, The River, The Face of Britain,* and *The City.*

The dramatization need not necessarily be that usually found in the commercial story film. It need not involve a story about the conflicts of a particular set of individuals followed through the course of a conventional plot. It can be the dramatization of forces of history and of nature in their effects on human beings. The dramatic element in *The Plow That Broke the Plains* is the conflict between man and the prairies in man's attempt to subdue the soil to the uses of agriculture. The tragedy is not that of one family which the audience can identify by name, but rather a vast, general tragedy affecting thousands of families who went to the plains in an attempt to better their way of life and found only disappointment and disaster.

3. *It provides a basis for unified experience, cutting across many subject areas of the curriculum.*—In this way social problems can be seen in the functional setting of many areas of human life. Naturally a teacher emphasizes certain points in showing a film, but to the students these points are in the natural setting, not torn loose and isolated from the realities which give them meaning and importance.

The following discussion of the film *The River* illustrates the manner in which a documentary film provides a unified experience cutting across many subject-matter lines.

First of all, *The River* contains subject matter ordinarily included under geography. Through maps and commentary, all accompanied by pictorial matter, the student will get: (1) a geographical orientation to the flood problem in our country; (2) an awareness of the size and tremendous range of influence of the Mississippi River Valley; (3) an awareness of the number of streams which feed into the Mississippi; (4) a realization of the factors that helped determine the locations of such cities as Louisville, Cincinnati, and Cairo. The geographical facts, however, are all related to an important problem of living and are not presented merely that the child may learn the names of a number of rivers and cities.

Second, *The River* contains subject matter ordinarily included under history. The child learns of the century-old struggle against the ravages and unruliness of the Mississippi; he becomes aware of the gigantic importance of cotton in the economy of the South prior to the Civil War; he gains insight into the effects of the Civil War on the life of the South; he watches the unfolding of the conquest by man of the timberlands of the North and the effect of forest destruction on the growth of our large cities and industries; and finally he is brought face to face with the tragedy of floods, a result of the historical forces which had been operating over many decades. Here again the subject matter is tied to a problem and history becomes more than a chronicle of past events.

Third, *The River* contains subject matter ordinarily included under economics. The relationship of the intelligent utilization of resources to the happiness and security of human beings is forcefully brought out by the effects of the T.V.A. program on the life and prosperity of the South. The effect of ruined soil, on the other hand, is demonstrated in the sequences showing the poverty and misery of the inhabitants of those sections where soil erosion has cut deep gullies into the once good earth. Here is economics as it is related to life.

Fourth, *The River* contains subject matter ordinarily included under science, for in it the student can see how man has applied the theories of science in the construction of dams, bridges, levees, and electric power lines. To the student is brought home the fact that while science is often thought of as a product of the laboratory, it can and does function as a powerful weapon in the conquest of those forces which interfere with and hamper human welfare.

Fifth, *The River* contains subject matter ordinarily included under literature. The emotional power of the blank verse which makes up most of the commentary helps to transform the seemingly prosaic data of soil conservation into an epic which has thrilled hard-boiled movie

audiences all over the country. Moreover, the poetry in *The River* has its roots deep in American soil. Take the following quotation, for example. It comes at the point in the film where the audience has just been told how the lumber from the destroyed forests had been used in the building of our great cities. As we hear the commentator recite the following lines, we see the scarred hilltop with many scattered stumps and a few gaunt skeletons of remaining trees.

> Black spruce and Norway pine,
> Douglas fir and Red cedar,
> Scarlet oak and Shagbark hickory.
> We built a hundred cities and a thousand towns—
> But at what a cost!
> We cut the top off the Alleghenies and sent it down the river.
> We cut the top off Minnesota and sent it down the river.
> We cut the top off Wisconsin and sent it down the river.
> We left the mountains and the hills slashed and burned,
> And moved on.

Then later, as we see the homes and farms of the valley destroyed by floods, the commentator reminds us,

> We built a hundred cities and a thousand towns—
> But at what a cost!

At the end of the film, however, the poetry no longer carries the note of disaster, but the note of triumph and hope. On the screen we see the power lines of the Tennessee Valley, as the commentator says,

> Power for the farmers of the Valley.
> Power for the villages and cities and factories of the Valley.
> West Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Mississippi, Georgia
>   and Alabama.
> Power to give a new Tennessee Valley to a new generation.
> Power enough to make the river work!

The art in *The River*, like the poetry, is rooted in American soil. There are scenes of superb beauty, among which are landscapes of mountaintops, broad plains, rivers, and forests; but the artistic power of this film does not depend on the mere presentation of beauty. We have portrayed to us such unpleasant and tragic realities as the destruction of forests, the washing away of soil, the terror of rising flood waters. The pictures show us homelessness, hunger, exposure, and undernourishment. Nevertheless, the purpose is not to present a chamber of horrors, but to show us a human problem. Moreover, the net effect of the art in this picture is sobering rather than horrifying. It makes us stop to give thought, but like the poetry it ends on a note

of triumph and hope. The closing scenes show the great dams of the Tennessee River, the electric power lines, and the neat, well-kept farms of the people—all of which promise well for the future.

Few people are neutral to the music in *The River*. Mr. Virgil Thomson, the composer, made the attempt to develop a score which would be suited not to the literal realities of the pictorial material, but rather to their mood. In doing so he made use of much authentic American folk music and thus contributed another element to the downright earthiness of the entire film. So far as the quality of the music is concerned, many feel that it is very high, but that is a subjective opinion. At any rate, it is likely that *The River*, without Mr. Thomson's score, would lose much of its power to thrill and excite an audience.

Teachers may draw an interesting comparison between the score of *The River* and many of the symphonic compositions of European composers. The comparison lies in the fact that both make much use of folk themes. Stressing this fact in the study of European symphonies would do much to add meaning and reality to the music. For instance, Mr. Thomson uses "There'll Be a Hot Time in the Old Town Tonight" as the basis for one portion of his score. As listeners, we sit up and take notice. When young people hear, let us say, Dvorak's symphonies and realize that they have a firm basis in the folk melody of the Czechs, their interest is often increased.

In using *The River* in class, not all teachers will want to stress all these elements simultaneously. Each teacher will have some particular objective in mind and will stress that objective; but the important thing is that each time a student sees *The River* he is being presented with a unified experience. In this film there is a genuine example of the types of materials and mediums of instruction which are needed in actually carrying out the theories of integration and correlation in the classroom.

Uses of the Motion Picture

There are a few general guide lines which a social-education teacher should follow if he wishes to use motion pictures with maximum effectiveness.

1. *It is important that the teacher should know why he is using a motion picture.*—The use of films should be related to definite teaching purposes in terms of understandings, attitudes, and skills to be developed by students. This does not mean that any one film is going to fulfill completely any educational purpose. Films are used in relation to reading materials, auditory materials, and other visual aids. But the teacher should have a reason other than that of simply "showing a film."

The following examples indicate various purposes for which motion pictures might be employed in social education.

a) A teacher may wish to develop a better understanding of the Negro problem and an attitude favorable to racial equality and for this purpose may use the film *One Tenth of Our Nation*.

b) A teacher may wish to help students realize the conditions of child labor in America. For this he may show the March of Time film *The Child Labor Amendment*.

c) He may wish to develop an attitude favorable to coöperation in society and may show *The River* in order to give an example of a problem which demands coöperative effort for its solution.

d) A teacher may wish students to develop skill in certain aspects of using libraries. For this purpose he may show the University of Illinois film *Found in a Book*.

e) A teacher may wish to give an understanding of some newer school practices and show the March of Time film on *Progressive Education*.

f) A teacher may wish to present a concrete personal-social relationship to serve as a basis for discussion of the issues involved. He may use the Commission on Human Relations' cutting of *Captains Courageous*, showing how a little boy has been wisely and humanely handled after being guilty of some cruel and unfair but thoughtless mischief.

The importance of using a film for a definite purpose is demonstrated most completely when the teacher strives to evaluate the educational results of the use of the film. Unless he knows what he wanted to accomplish, he will have no basis for devising a test or for setting up observations which will help him find out whether the use of the film was effective or not. Of course, a teacher does not necessarily use one test for one film. A given test on a particular outcome of instruction may cover the results of a number of motion pictures, plus readings, lectures, discussions, and other educational mediums and procedures.

2. *The place of the film in the mechanics of unit development should be carefully considered.*—Films may be used in any stage of unit development. Some films are better suited for one stage than for others. Therefore, every teacher using a film should consider not only why he uses it, but also why he uses it where he does.

Films have been found very useful in the initiating of units. A teacher wishing to open up possibilities for consideration may show a number of films on various topics simply to call attention to what may be done. *The Plow That Broke the Plains*, for example, might well be used to open up the problem of how to conserve our soil. The March of Time

film *Men of Medicine* might be used to open the problem of how to provide adequate health and medical care for all people. It defines the issues and sets the stage for the further exploration of the problem in a teaching unit.

If a teacher uses a film in initiating a unit, he will need to plan for its use, but will not necessarily need to have any preteaching with the class. This fact should serve to qualify the oft-repeated dictum that motion-picture use must always be preceded by "build-up" teaching.

After a unit has been decided on by students and teacher, films may be used to indicate the various subproblems within the unit which may serve as centers of activity for the class committees. A class may embark on the large problem of how to provide for a fair and just labor peace in America. The films *Within the Gates* and *Behind the Scenes in the Machine Age* could open up activities for a committee formed to study the peculiar problems of the workingwoman in our civilization. The March of Time film on labor could be used to open up the particular problem of the conflict between the A.F.L. and the C.I.O.

When the unit is under way, a committee may wish to report some of its results to the total group. One way of setting the stage for such a report is to use a motion picture. The committee studying techniques of field plowing wishes to report to the entire group studying the soil-conservation problem. One way is to show the film *Rain on the Plains* and to follow up with general class discussion.

Films can be effectively employed in unit culmination. A class that has finished a unit on social planning might conduct an assembly program or a P.T.A. program in which it would use the film *The City*. The film, in this case, would give the audience the proper setting for the discussion which members of the class would present following the showing of the film. During the discussion the conclusions the class had reached during their unit study would be explained. Another aspect of culmination is checking or review. Suppose a class has worked through an orientation unit in the field of vocations and has evolved a list of criteria which could be used by an individual student in selecting an occupational field. This class could use the film *Finding Your Life Work* as a basis for reviewing the adequacy of its criteria to see whether all points had been properly included. In most cases, however, it is better in the culmination of a unit for the students to exhibit film that they have made themselves as a part of their work. During the Stanford Social Education Investigation such films were made both at Sequoia Union High School and at Menlo School and Junior College

3. *The teacher should carefully plan in advance the basis on which*

the film is to be related to class discussion.—The end of a motion picture is often followed by a deadly and embarrassing silence. This is quite natural, for the dramatic events portrayed on the screen have come to an end and we are suddenly plumped back into our everyday environment. It is at this point that the teacher needs to know exactly where he goes from there.

Not all films will be followed by class discussion, nor will all films be followed by immediate discussion. If, however, the teacher does plan to discuss the film immediately after its showing, he should have his line of attack well worked out in advance. This means that he will have seen the film before showing it to the class. Opportunities for pre-viewing films should always be provided teachers; otherwise there is little chance for definite planning of a discussion. This preparation of the teacher does not imply that he has to stick to his plan regardless of what happens. If the class takes the initiative and goes off on a worth-while aspect of the film, the teacher should be flexible enough to go with them, although he may wish later to return to the area of his preplanning.

It is well to keep in mind the fact that the essential feature of a discussion following a motion picture is the content of that picture and not the characteristics of the film itself. In many cases teachers use a film to bring to the class a certain phase of experience, and it is from that experience that the discussion should take its point of departure.

One way of opening a discussion following the showing of a film is to get the class to state the particular issues involved. For example, if one used the March of Time film *Men of Medicine,* one might ask first: "What is the particular problem which has caused so much controversy to arise in connection with socialized medicine and coöperative medical plans?" After members of the class have formulated a statement of the problem, one might then ask: "What are the issues which have brought about difference of opinion among medical men and laymen?" The issues might then be written on the blackboard, after which groups may be formed to go out and gather more data to form the basis for tentative conclusions. If one does not wish to ask directly for statements of problems and issues, he might make a more indirect approach. The first question might be: "We have just seen some examples of the genius and skill of surgeons and physicians. To what extent, do you suppose, is this genius being made available to the American people?" If the class feels that it is not being made available to a sufficient extent, the teacher might ask why this is the case. If the class disagrees, as it well might, on the question of whether or not this skill is made available, the teacher might suggest the formation of volunteer groups to gather

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data to assist in answering the question. Out of his preliminary discussion, then, could grow the statement of the problem and of the issues involved.

Too often, however, teachers begin the discussion by saying "How did you like the picture?" Since the motion picture as a tool has certain elements of interest in and of itself, it is quite natural for the teacher to begin this way. The weakness in this approach, however, is that it focuses the attention of the student on the picture and not on the experience which was portrayed in the picture. Students are all too prone to get lost in a discussion of the photography and the acting; and while a discussion of these points may be desirable sometimes, one rarely shows a motion picture in a social-studies class for the purpose of stimulating a discussion on the technical aspects of production.[1]

4. *Specific questions of technique must be answered in terms of teaching purposes.*—There are a number of more specific questions which might be raised concerning classroom techniques. The following suggestions are designed to illustrate how these may be resolved in terms of teaching purposes.

a) How often should films be used? A given film should be shown as often as necessary. Again, the solution of this problem depends on the purpose for which the film is shown. If one shows a film to stimulate interest which may lead to the choice of a problem for study, one showing may do the job. On the other hand, if one wishes the children to understand thoroughly the technique of contour plowing, two or three showings may be necessary. Unfortunately, when films are used on a rental basis, it is often impossible to keep them longer than one day.

One frequently hears such assertions as "No teacher should use more than two films a week." Again we protest against any dogmatic assertion of this character. It all depends on the purposes. In initiating a unit and opening up possibilities of exploration, a teacher may legitimately use a number of films in a given period of time. Of course, it is always necessary to guard against the abuse of the medium on the part of overenthusiastic teachers who do not carefully consider the reasons why they are using films.

b) Should sound or silent films be used? The question of "sound or silent" appears to have lent itself particularly well to dogmatic statements. There are advantages in each type. In using the silent film, for example, the teacher has the opportunity to do his own explaining in terms of his own purposes. On the other hand, it is possible for a teacher to cut the sound on a sound film and be his own commentator. A weakness of the silent film is that much valuable

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footage has to be taken from the visual experience presented in order to accommodate the written captions. In a sound film, there is the distinct advantage of having the explanation of the commentator taking place along with the action he is explaining. Likewise, sound is a valuable adjunct if the film is to serve the function of dramatizing experience. The dramatic character of *The River,* for example, has been greatly intensified by the musical background. On the other hand, silent equipment is certainly cheaper, less complicated to operate, and less cumbersome to carry around; but with the rapid technical development of the educational motion picture, stimulated in part by World War II, sound equipment is becoming cheaper, more compact, and more easily operated.

c) *Should films be used in classrooms or in auditoriums?* Some school systems follow the practice of showing films in the auditorium and bringing the entire student body in to see them. This practice is quite all right when the purpose is to provide entertainment, but classroom use of films is necessary if one wishes to utilize the motion picture as an integral part of unit teaching. Showing films in an auditorium situation encourages teachers to bring their classes to see a picture even when the picture has nothing to do with the objectives of the class or the unit being studied. Then, too, the auditorium situation makes the discussion following the picture difficult even though classes go back to their own rooms at the completion of the film. Another weakness of the auditorium showing is that students feel that it is an entertainment situation and attention is usually poorer than when the picture is shown in the classroom to small groups.

In school systems where it is impossible to equip all classrooms for motion-picture use, it is best to set up one or two classrooms and reserve them for the use of teachers showing films. While this situation is not ideal, it is much better than bringing even one class at a time into the auditorium, and it is certainly superior to the mass auditorium situation.[2]

d) *What about grade placement of particular films?* It is a mistake to state arbitrarily that a particular film is for seventh grade, or twelfth grade, or some other grade. Certain motion pictures have been successfully used over a wide range of grade levels. The decision to use a film on any grade level depends upon the particular educational purposes for which one wishes to use it. If one wished to show *The Plow* for the purpose of getting children to sympathize with the refugees from the dust bowl, it might be quite in order to use that film in the upper elementary grades. On the other hand, if one wished to present a chronological history of agriculture in the Great

Plains, it would probably be unwise to use *The Plow* for that purpose below the high school.

Other Types of Visual Aids

So much attention has been given to the motion picture during the past few years that other techniques and devices of visual education are sometimes overlooked. There are many types of visual aids, all of which are useful in teaching procedures. Some of these devices in fact have been used for so long by teachers and are so familiar that they are scarcely thought of as being "visual aids" at all. Yet it is necessary that teachers think through carefully the possibilities of using all these devices in their efforts to attain the objectives set up for social education.

Visual aids have long been used by teachers to present materials to students. In connection with the type of teaching which emphasizes student investigation and reporting, visual aids can be employed by class committees in presenting materials to the entire group. This possibility provides opportunity for pupils to exercise their imagination in selecting mediums particularly appropriate for their topic and to do some tangible work in constructing the devices used. For example, a committee might have gathered data showing job opportunities in a particular community. Should the committee present this information as a table of statistics, as a simple graph, as a picture graph, or as a diagram? If the decision is for a picture graph, who is to be responsible for its construction and presentation? In reaching decisions of this character, the members of the committee will be having an important educational experience and, in addition, will provide for more effective group understanding of the materials they intend to present.

Teachers will find ready-made visual aids of much value in stimulating the interest of students during the exploratory or initiation stage of a unit of work and in the collection of information during the developmental period. Most visual material tends to fall into one of three categories—symbolic presentation aids, direct-contact aids, and pictorial-representation aids.

Maps and Globes

The map is one of the visual aids which are often taken too much for granted. Yet the map is one of the most important of all tools in forming geographical concepts, and it takes on special significance with the influence of the airplane on our ideas of world geography. It becomes important that students learn the use, advantages, and

limitations of the more common types of flat map projections, such as the mercator, the equal-area, the gnomonic chart, and the azimuthal equidistant. An especially helpful pamphlet which can be used in this connection both by teachers and by students is *Maps and How to Understand Them*, published by Consolidated Vultee Aircraft Corporation. Also useful is the section on maps in Denoyer-Geppert's *A Handbook of Visual Teaching Aids*. Even more important than maps, which always give a distorted picture of the earth's surface, is the globe—the most realistic and "honest" of all geographic representations of the earth as a whole. Students should have constant opportunity to use globes in individual and group study.

Of growing importance is the map which presents some important social generalization, which brings together data on a social problem and gives geographical orientation. Such maps indicate the distribution of vegetation, soil, rainfall, forests, wind pressure, etc., in various regions. They show the distribution of industries and wealth, as well as other economic and social factors and relationships. Collections of such maps are to be found in the *Atlas of the Historical Geography of the United States*[3] by Charles O. Paullin and John K. Wright, Goode's *School Atlas*,[4] and Edwin Raiz's *Atlas of Global Geography*.[5]

Magazines such as *Life, Fortune, Time, Newsweek,* and *Look* are increasingly making use of maps and picture-map combinations in their discussions of current events. Some of these maps are extremely ingenious and interesting, but at the same time they may be open to misinterpretation. In order to help youth become intelligent consumers of such presentations, the social-studies teacher needs increasingly to stress map analysis and interpretation. Simple exercises similar to the technique used in the Progressive Education Association *Interpretation of Data Test* can be constructed in connection with map study. A few items for quick analysis and discussion of the maps in newspapers, textbooks, and magazines help to point class discussion toward these considerations. Students can enter into good discussions over the question of whether a certain item is true, probably true, false, probably false, or irrelevant to the data contained in a map presentation.

The blackboard-slate outline map which can be written on with chalk and easily erased has many uses. These maps have the advantage of giving the teacher, or student committee, the opportunity of developing the data before the eyes of the class. Moreover, they can be erased and cleared for another set of data. This flexibility makes these maps important classroom tools. Blackboard-type globes on stands are also available.[6]

Charts and Diagrams

It is often difficult to distinguish between a chart and a diagram. Ordinarily a chart will have a greater amount of verbal material in it, whereas a diagram will emphasize line and area relationships. Charts and diagrams have been extensively used in wall sets and textbooks to show the structure and function of various agencies of government, such as the courts and the federal reserve system. It is likely that charts of this type are better adapted to textbook presentation than to wall use. The difficulty involved in the use of a wall chart is that so much lettering may be required that pupils find it impossible to read at a distance of more than a few feet.

Some of the map companies are now issuing large historical charts showing events and tendencies in various nations with reference to time sequences. Such charts are the Historical Chart of Mankind and the "Our Democracy" series published by the Denoyer-Geppert Company, and the "Democracy at Work" charts published by the Nystrom Company.

Graphs

Line graphs, bar graphs, and pie graphs have long been used in the presentation of data. A comparatively recent development, however, is the picture graph or pictorial statistics. The essential feature of picture graphs or pictorial statistics is that quantities are represented by symbols related to the idea being portrayed. Thus, if it be desired to compare the number of houses in Springfield, Missouri, in 1920 and in 1940, small conventionalized houses are used as symbols. Another characteristic of the picture graph is that exact numbers are not given. Instead, one "house" on the graph may stand for a thousand houses. Modley lists the following basic rules for pictorial statistics:[7]

1. Symbols should be self-explanatory.
2. Larger quantities shown by more symbols, not by larger symbols.
3. Charts compare approximate quantities, not exact figures.
4. Only comparisons should be charted, not isolated statements.

Many of the recent publications both for school use and for general use are featuring pictorial statistics in their presentations of social-studies data. The following list is a sample of three types of these new materials:

1. "Building America" series, distributed by the Americana Corporation, New York. These photographic pamphlets on modern problems are well-equipped with pictorial statistics. They are published monthly, October through May, by the Department of Supervision and Curriculum De-

velopment. The series includes such titles as *Labor, War or Peace? Lumber, Taxes, Crime, Italian-Americans,* and *Congress.*

2. "Headline Books," published by the Foreign Policy Association, New York. The pamphlets in this series are liberally sprinkled with picture graphs. The series includes such titles as *The Good Neighbors, Changing Governments, Shadow over Europe, Battles Without Bullets, War in China, Skyways of Tomorrow, A Peace That Pays, France—Crossroads of a Continent, Only by Understanding,* and *European Jigsaw.*

3. *Modern Man in the Making,* Otto Neurath. New York: Knopf, 1939. This is a graphical presentation of a number of modern problems in book form.

It is well to keep in mind the possibility of student construction of these materials. Such activities are naturally most desirable when they grow out of the need of an individual student or a committee to find an effective way of presenting data to an entire class. If, for example, a committee has been studying the distribution of electric lighting facilities in a rural county, the findings might be presented to the entire group by means of a map, pictograph, or some combination of the two. Since pictographs depend on showing approximate relationships rather than exact figures, they are well-adapted to use on large wall charts and may be preserved in that form for future reference. This type of student-contributed material can be a particularly effective tool in making generally available important data on social and economic problems in the local community.

The informal interpretation-of-data exercises mentioned in connection with map study can also be used to stimulate interesting discussions in the interpretations of graphs. Almost every social-studies textbook contains examples of graphs which can be used for this purpose.

Excursions

An excursion should be undertaken only when direct experience with a particular social situation appears to be desirable. In some cases this is a definite help. For example, a visit to a central fruit and vegetable market in a large city during the early morning will demonstrate to a class of students the complicated and intricate mechanism involved in the transporting, marketing, and distributing of foods in an urban social situation. A class in modern social problems could learn a great deal about slum clearance and housing construction by visiting a government or private housing project. A group interested in the adjustment of foreign population groups to our culture might visit an urban neighborhood in which such a group formed a large percentage of the residents.

Often the question arises, "Which is better—a motion picture or an

excursion?" In cases where the direct experience is easily available to the school, it is *usually* better to take the excursion. On the other hand, there are situations in which a motion picture may be a superior medium. For example, if a teacher wished to present the technical details of oil-well operation, a motion picture well-equipped with animated diagrams, section cutouts, etc., could probably serve the purpose better than an excursion. Factories may be so noisy and confusing that it is impossible for students to get a clear picture of what is taking place. But information about the technical details of an industrial process is rarely an objective in social-studies instruction. Therefore, excursions, when they can be taken, probably serve better than motion pictures for most purposes. With the present emphasis which is being placed on studying the problems of the community, the excursion assumes a larger and more important rôle than ever. Good as a motion picture may be, it is not an adequate substitute for reality when that reality may be readily secured through a class trip.

There are practical difficulties, however, which make excursions a difficult technique to use. Transportation problems are difficult to solve. World War II practically eliminated school excursions for an extended period. The excursion may disrupt the class schedule, especially on the high-school level. Legal responsibility for the safety of the students also makes many school boards hesitant about the whole idea. So there may be school situations where excursion opportunities, so far as whole classes are concerned, are severely limited. In those instances, teachers can encourage individual students or small committees to make visits to places of significance in the community. These students or committees then have the responsibility of reporting their experiences to the entire group and can use visual aids in their presentations. Over a period of a year, each student in the class can have the experience of making a visit to some local institution or place of interest.[8]

Models, Objects, and Specimens

These aids have two particularly important applications in social education. One is in connection with the industrial and technical developments which have brought about important changes in human living. The other has to do with the artistic productions which have reflected and revealed the aspirations and ideals of various peoples and cultures throughout history. It should be kept in mind that good teaching and learning in connection with museum materials consist of drawing sound generalizations and meanings from the study of the particular industrial devices or pieces of art in question. Here indeed lies a magnificent opportunity for the teachers of social

studies to work with the industrial-arts and fine-arts teachers in bringing their various resources to bear on problems of social education.

One way for schools to make these experiences available to students is through building up a school museum. During the 1930's a number of school systems utilized W.P.A. projects for the development of reservoirs of museum materials.[9] In addition, it is possible for schools to encourage pupil activity in constructing models and collecting objects and specimens. Care should be taken, however, that these activities not be forced on youth, but that they be legitimate outgrowths of student needs and interests. It should also be remembered that what may be a worth-while educational experience in constructing models for an elementary-school child may be only "busy work" for an eleventh-or twelfth-grade student.

Another way to give students these experiences is to establish relationships with museums either for purposes of visiting the museum directly or for the borrowing of exhibits.[10] There are many museums in the United States which make a practice of lending their materials to school systems. It is highly desirable that teachers become aware of such museum resources as may be available in their communities or regions.[11]

Still Pictures and Slides

Film strips, slides, and still pictures lend reality to the presentation of social problems and generalizations; and the still picture, as contrasted with the motion picture, makes it possible for pupils and teachers to engage in detailed study and analysis of data. The still picture can be an important and powerful educational medium, particularly in connection with training young people to draw inferences from raw data.[12] The art of looking at pictures for the purpose of deriving meaning from them is one which is peculiarly susceptible to development through patient and systematic instruction, accompanied by extensive practice on the part of the learner.

One common source of good pictorial material is the modern social-studies textbook. In addition, many pamphlet materials, such as the "Building America" series, contain effective photographic material. Also available are such magazines as *Life*, *Look*, and *National Geographic*, which emphasize pictorial presentation of many important social events. These magazines yield many pictures which can be cut out, mounted, classified, grouped, and filed in the library for reference. In this way a fine collection of materials can be developed over a period of time and used in many classes as needed.

Projection equipment makes it possible for an entire group to look at a picture together. The common types of projected-picture devices

are film strips, still films, and lantern slides. A film strip consists of a series of still films, each of which is projected separately as the strip is moved vertically through the projecting device. Still films are run horizontally through the projector and are wider than the pictures on film strips. Lantern-slide projectors are known variously as stereopticons, delineascopes, balopticons, or magic lanterns. The principle is the same in all cases in that the pictures are printed on glass slides, usually $3\frac{1}{4}$ x 4 inches in size. The balopticon can also be used for showing post cards, loose prints, and illustrations from books without mounting them on glass. Some of these projectors have the special advantage of being daylight devices, which makes it possible to show slides without darkening the room.

Pupil-made slides help to add interest to class reports. These may be made either on etched glass with pencil or on clear glass with india ink. The etched glass slides may be erased and used over and over again. Both types may be used for pictures, simple maps, charts, and diagrams. Teachers interested in this possibility should write to the Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pennsylvania, for a sample kit of materials used for pupil-made slides.

The recent development of the 35-mm. kodachrome or black-and-white slide made from photographs is of great importance both from the standpoint of pupil presentations and from that of developing files of community materials. The student reporting a project in class can use these slides to enliven his presentation. In gathering material in the community, he may find scenes he would like to show in class, for example, a portion of a freight yard. If the school has a 35-mm. camera, someone can take a picture of the scene and the student can use it in class. Over a period of years, a school could accumulate a file of interesting pictures on community life. This would be particularly important in large cities, where boys and girls often do not get around the community to see its most important institutions. Also available are kodachrome slides on various regions of the United States, Mexico, and Central and South American countries.

Thus, visual aids other than the motion picture have important contributions to make to social education. Since they do not present objects in motion, their function in the dramatization of social processes and social interaction is limited. On the other hand, the fact that they stand still lends them to more intensive analysis and interpretation than is possible with the motion picture. The question of whether to use motion pictures or still pictures (or any other type of visual aid) gets back to the fundamental question of educational purposes.

Auditory Aids

In addition to giving teachers a host of devices for communication through the human eye, modern technology has made available several which make their appeal primarily to the ear. Among the most important of these are the radio and the phonograph. These devices should be included in the equipment of any school which wishes to take maximum advantage of the possibilities for providing good social education.

Many of the most exciting and significant social events of modern life are brought to today's citizens via the radio. The nomination of presidential candidates, the inauguration of presidents, the opening of congresses and parliaments, the speeches of world-wide political leaders, international conferences—all these are brought to the public in terms of the highest qualities of realism, vividness, and color. In addition, a host of political and economic experts daily interpret the trend of events through commentary, panels, round tables, and lectures. Finally, the large broadcasting chains offer many features designed particularly for educational purposes—dramatizations of historical events and modern problems, as well as direct teaching lessons like those of the Columbia School of the Air.[13]

But the question is, "How can the public school best make use of these opportunities?" Many schools have been equipped with radio sets. Some have a radio in the central office with loudspeakers in every classroom. These serve well when there is a nation-wide event of sufficient importance to give to the entire school, even though other work is interrupted and even though it bears no specific relation to the units of work under consideration in the various class groups.

But there are practical difficulties encountered in using the radio for other types of programs. Miss A's class may want one program at 10:00 o'clock, while Miss B's, working on another problem, wants a different program. Of course, a separate receiver could be put in every classroom. But then there are difficulties, too. Miss A's class on social problems is studying conservation and meets from 10:15 to 11:00 daily, but the radio program on this problem, which is just what the class needs, comes at 2:30 or in the evening. Then again, an excellent program on conservation may come when Miss A's class is studying international relations. So the problem of coördinating national radio broadcasts with the varying needs of classes in the modern curriculum becomes a difficult one to handle.

The best solution so far found is that of the transcribed radio program. The program as it comes off the air is recorded for future use.

Then the various classes may turn to the materials available as they fit into their units of work.

Many schools therefore have purchased recording equipment for this purpose. Legally, they are restricted to using the recordings only in their own school situations or to making limited distribution without charge. One school which carried on a particularly ambitious project is the Menlo School and Junior College, Menlo Park, California, where over a thousand such programs were recorded during a three-year period. These recordings were used in the Menlo School and also by other schools in the Stanford Social Education Investigation. Recently some of the national broadcasting chains have begun to release transcriptions for school use on a limited and experimental basis. Many of these are being distributed through the American Council on Education, Recordings Division, with offices in New York City.

The difficulties faced by individual schools or school systems in purchasing expensive recording equipment and paying somebody to to run it have led to the formation of coöperative organizations for this purpose. A number of schools in a region get together and share expenses on making recordings, which are then distributed throughout the membership. The Rocky Mountain Radio Council, supported by the Denver Public Schools and the nearby colleges and universities, is an interesting example of such an organization.

When radio transcriptions have been secured, what use can be made of them? Like other materials, the transcriptions are best used when considered in relation to teaching purposes and the stages of unit development. Most of the discussion with reference to motion pictures applies also to the use of transcriptions. Transcriptions of radio programs are used best in the initiation and development phases of unit development. Such series as the Town Meeting of the Air, the University of Chicago Round Table, the March of Time, and the Cavalcade of America are especially useful.

In addition to transcriptions of radio broadcasts, schools can use recordings made specifically for educational use. The "Growth of Democracy" series, put out by Erpi Classroom Films, Inc., contains twenty recordings of dramatizations of historical events, such as Magna Charta, Mayflower Compact, Bacon's Rebellion, and the like. The National Council of the Teachers of English distributes recordings of readings from literature, such as Vachel Lindsay's "The Chinese Nightingale" and selections from Chaucer. The Columbia Recording Corporation has records of the Mercury Theatre Players' dramatizations of Shakespearean drama, plus excerpts from performances by

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Maurice Evans. The World Book Company has an Elmer Davis feature, "Then Came War," which could be used in units on contemporary history and World War II backgrounds. Other distributors of such recordings include the Harvard Film Service, Cambridge, Massachusetts; the RCA Manufacturing Company, Camden, New Jersey; and the General Records Company, 1600 Broadway, New York City.

One of the most comprehensive lists of available recordings is that of the New York University Film Library. Also useful are the catalogues of New Tools for Learning, New York City, which list recordings, motion pictures, and pamphlet material. In addition, teachers would do well to supply themselves with the record catalogues of such companies as Victor, Columbia, and Decca. Musical recordings from these companies are extremely useful to social education in presenting the music of other peoples and cultures as well as in developing an appreciation of American music.

Perhaps the chief strength of auditory aids is their power of intense dramatization through the use of voice, music, and natural sound effects. Some extremely dramatic experiences can be transmitted solely through the auditory medium without recourse to the visual medium at all. The thrilling power of Archibald MacLeish's *Air Raid* and *The Fall of the City* would probably gain very little through the addition of visual experience.

The matter of proper choice of equipment becomes important in school use of these materials. Radio transcriptions come in disks 16 inches in diameter and are played at $33\frac{1}{3}$ revolutions per minute. Other recordings usually come on disks 12 inches in diameter and are played at 78 revolutions per minute. Teachers and principals should take care to see that they purchase playbacks on which both types can be used.

To the teacher of social education, then, there are many significant materials available over the radio and on records for the furthering of desirable objectives. But they must be planned in relation to educational objectives and unit development. Not all types of recordings are equally suited for all purposes. As in the case of the motion picture and other visual aids, the best use of recordings is dependent on a classroom teacher who knows how to plan with students to achieve desired goals. The recordings then cease to be gadgets, used as ends in themselves, and become an integral part of the total resources which teachers and students alike bring to bear upon the development of worth-while learning experiences.

USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES IN
SOCIAL-STUDIES INSTRUCTION

D URING THE Middle Ages when central authority was weak or non-existent, fortified castles became the refuge of the people against their enemies. These castles were generally high-walled and surrounded by a moat. Drawbridges connected the castles with the surrounding countryside. The castles were islands of escape in an insecure world. The public school, separated from the community by a moat of tradition and convention, has been compared to these islands.[1] The drawbridge is let down for students, teachers, and a few stray visitors to enter and leave, but usually the school is shut off from the community while students study materials remote from reality; or it lies deserted when "school is out," while children play in the streets and adults are unable to secure knowledge which will enable them to live more fully and richly.

To say the school is an island is without doubt an exaggeration, especially during the past quarter century. The history of education from the Greeks onward is filled with examples of educational leaders who have sought to make education an integral part of community life. Since World War I the community-centered school has become a major trend in educational theory and practice. During the 1930's numerous books appeared in the United States describing the functions and activities of community schools. During World War II the schools became a center of many community activities: rationing, scrap collection, civilian defense, the sale of stamps and bonds, Junior Red Cross activities, and the like. Hence, while it is still true that practice lags behind theory and the school is too often widely separated from community life, considerable progress has been made.

Teachers of the social studies have an especially heavy responsibility in utilizing community resources as materials of instruction and in filling the moat which separates the school and community. But in working toward these ends it is important that social-studies teachers have a clear conception of the values to be derived, ·the resources

available, and the most fruitful approaches and techniques which have been developed by experienced teachers and curriculum workers.

The Use of Community Resources Contributes to the Achievement of the Major Objectives of Social Education

The major objectives of social-studies instruction are to develop in young people an understanding of the world in which they live, wholesome value standards, and competence in thought and action. The use of community resources as materials of instruction makes a major contribution to the development of all these objectives.

In an interdependent world with rapid transportation and mass agencies of instantaneous communication, each community is in large part a microcosm of world culture; it is even more representative of national culture. Hence, an understanding of the local community contributes directly to an understanding of the nation and the world. Furthermore, concreteness in meaning is developed in large part by direct experience; and since participation in an interdependent society requires a high degree of conceptuality, the use of the local community in teaching the meaning of abstract concepts is desirable. For example, the meaning of geographic concepts can be learned from observing the local natural environment; the concept of American democracy may be given meaning by observing the operations of local govern-ments; meanings of economic concepts can be learned by observing the operations of local economic activities and institutions. Thus concrete meaning is given to words read in books, newspapers, and periodicals and heard in group meetings or over the radio.

Participation in community activities contributes directly to the building of value standards. Working together on practical problems, going together on community excursions, and talking with community leaders build an appreciation of the value of coöperation and give youth a feeling of confidence in their growing maturity. Young people develop a sense of responsibility and self-dependence by doing things which have practical value in the adult world. They come to have faith in democracy by participating in it. A study of community history and planning for improving community life help youth become a part of the community spirit, develop loyalty to community ideals, and strengthen their pride in having a part to play in an on-going cultural pattern. Then, too, the study of community life and problems opens up new vistas in vocational and recreational interests and provides avenues for their realization.

The use of community resources in social-studies instruction con-tributes not only to understanding and values, but also to the building

of individual competence. Youth develop greater effectiveness in reading, writing, speaking, listening, observing, and using numbers as they read community documents, write the information they gain and the conclusions they reach, talk to community leaders, listen to those who know the community, observe the life about them, and collect statistics about community life. The study of local problems provides an opportunity to practice reflective thinking in practical situations; to define and analyze problems; to collect, verify, organize, and interpret information; and to formulate and apply conclusions.

Hence the use of community resources contributes to all the major objectives for teaching the social studies. In addition, it makes important contributions to meeting personal-social needs. Participating in community activities provides opportunities for developing feelings of confidence, status, and belongingness. It enables youth to feel that they are wanted and important, that they have a significant part to play in the improvement of human well-being and in the realization of the values of democracy.

Analyzing the Community for Study

There are a variety of definitions of a community. The community is often referred to as a place: a particular geographic area organized under a local government. Again it is referred to in terms of its function as a trade or manufacturing center, as a college town or a residential suburb. A community is also identified by its spirit and character as a "progressive community," a "ghost town," or a "sleepy hollow." Communities are all of these and more; they are geographic areas, governmental units, centers of economic activities, and places where groups of people associate in the satisfaction of their needs and in their efforts to improve their ways of living.

The many ways of thinking about the community are indicative of the many aspects of community life that can be utilized in social-studies instruction. A careful analysis of the community's cultural pattern uncovers even more possibilities. Every community contains:

1. A natural environment
2. A man-made physical environment
3. People
4. Social organizations and institutions
5. Expressions of the cultural tradition in the form of documents, art, music, and the like
6. A pattern of living which includes techniques for carrying on basic social functions and processes; a climate of opinion expressing approval or disapproval of people, things, ideas, and actions; and a community

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spirit which has developed from the community's tradition and which
expresses its hopes for the future
7. A pattern of interrelationships and interdependencies with other com-
munities extending over the whole world

Natural Environment

The natural environment can be studied in terms of location in re-
lation to land forms and topography, bodies of water, soil and minerals,
animals and plants, and climate. Students can locate their local com-
munity in its state, regional, and world setting. They can study the
relationships of location, climate, transportation routes, shelter and
clothing, recreation, agriculture and industry, trade and commerce,
and the like. The specific meaning of such concepts as *peninsula,
mountain, plain,* and *bay* can often be understood by observing these
things in one's own environment. Soil and mineral resources can be
studied in terms of their economic implications; and climate as a factor
in agriculture, industry, recreation, and human well-being can be ob-
served as it is illustrated in the local community situation.

Man-Made Environment

The man-made environment includes houses, churches, and schools;
factories and stores, public buildings and monuments, roads and
bridges, playgrounds and swimming pools; and a variety of tools, ma-
chines, engines, utensils, textiles, and other things. These are called
artifacts by the archeologists and anthropologists; they are the physical
record of the accomplishments of a community. By observing and
studying them the social-studies student can learn much about the
history of the community and its contemporary ways and standards of
living. The study of the man-made environment offers numerous op-
portunities to develop the meaning of concepts and to arouse interest
in and gain information about almost every aspect of community life:
housing, recreation, transportation, government, and health.

People in the Community

The physical and man-made environments have little meaning ex-
cept in relation to the people who occupy and use them. The study of
the people of a community involves such aspects as the growth and
present population of the community; where the people came from and
why they came to the community; how many people move away from
the community, where they go, and why; the composition of the com-
munity population in terms of sex, age groupings, old-timers and new-
comers, education, religion, nationality and sectional backgrounds,
race, occupations, and standards of living. The mere listing of these
factors opens up numerous possibilities for social-studies instruction.

The relation of population growth to resources, the reasons for population mobility, the effects of mobility on personality, the problems of minority-group relationships, and the concept of an optimum population are only a few of the important areas that can be treated by studying the people of a community.

Social Organizations and Institutions

Social organizations and institutions can be studied in terms of informal neighborhood and school groups; youth and welfare groups; and more formal institutions such as the family, school, church, business, and government. The use of community resources makes the study of social organization concrete, practical, and meaningful. Students can understand the nature of gangs, social clubs, political parties, corporations, labor unions, factories, and departments of public welfare by talking with the people who belong to them and by observing what they do. By study, analysis, and thought they can learn how social organizations meet individual and group needs. They can see that groups are composed of people and that group actions are the actions of individuals working together. This helps young people to see their own obligations as members of groups, to evaluate group action in the light of its effects on people, and to assign individual responsibility for the consequences of group action.

Cultural Traditions

Study of the documents, art, and music in the community helps to illuminate its past, its spirit, and its interpendence with other parts of the world. Old newspapers, diaries, court records, and statistical reports provide information about past ways of living. The art and musical expressions of the people are indicative of tastes, standards, and ideals. The furniture used in homes gives evidence in the same and other areas.

Pattern of Community Life

All the factors considered thus far represent aspects of community life. In the study of the community it is also desirable to focus on the pattern of community culture as a whole; to consider the interrelation of resources, work, play, houses, dress, education, government, and the like; and to study the climate of opinion in terms of what is considered good and bad, right and wrong. Does the community believe in bigness? in education? Is it predominantly Republican or Democratic? Does it believe in change or resist it? Is it concerned about community beauty? health? recreation? Do groups coöperate effectively or is there conflict between sections of the town, between racial, religious, or nationality groups, between labor and management?

Community Interdependence

Finally the community should be studied in relation to its dependence on other communities for progress in the past and on other parts of the world today. Increasing world interdependence can be made concrete by considering the ways of living in any American community. Food, clothes, houses, and almost all the things used in a modern community are involved in a complex web of interdependencies.

The aspects of community life discussed in this section can be expressed in terms of the subject-matter areas comprising the social studies. Thus the community can be studied historically, geographically, economically, politically, or sociologically. The aspects of community life that can be utilized in social-studies instruction may also be stated as topics, such as health, earning a living, government, intelligent use of natural resources, transportation and communication, housing, recreation, and the like. Many of these topical areas can be stated and studied as problems. Thus aspects of community life may be introduced in any of the varied units that may be in use in social-studies classes.

Cataloguing Community Resources

In order to use community resources efficiently, it is necessary for the social-studies teacher to develop systematic procedures in locating them and determining their possibilities for instruction. Some teachers keep manila folders of materials from various local agencies. Others list the organizations in the community and their educational resources. Occasionally teachers in small and medium-sized communities are able to make a systematic catalogue of available resources. In larger communities the task of cataloguing local resources is too time-consuming for an individual teacher but can be done by a group of interested teachers making a common plan, dividing responsibilities, and sharing the results. An even more effective approach is for a group of teachers and community leaders to coöperate with leaders of community organizations in making a catalogue of educational resources available in the locality. For example, in Des Moines, Iowa, a group of teachers and administrators coöperated with forty-five community organizations in making a catalogue of community resources. More than four hundred community and school people participated, and an extensive catalogue of resources was mimeographed for educational use.[2]

In making a catalogue of local resources, it is first necessary to decide on the aspects of community life to be considered. The previous discussion in this chapter of the aspects of community life important in

social education indicates the numerous possibilities available. In the Des Moines survey of community resources the following topics were selected:

1. Business
2. Consumer education
3. Education
4. Government
5. Health
6. Homes
7. Industry
8. Intercultural relations
9. Occupational opportunities
10. Practical and fine arts
11. Public welfare
12. Recreation
13. Religion
14. Safety

After the areas which are to be surveyed have been selected, the next step is to locate key organizations in each area that can provide information. Among the groups that can be helpful in this task are the public library, the Council of Social Agencies, the various departments of the city government, the local Chamber of Commerce, the service clubs, and planning and coördinating councils. The city directory and the classified telephone directory are of special assistance in locating important community organizations. Some communities have published lists of local agencies and organizations that are helpful. Individuals and groups interested in local research are usually willing to be of assistance. These include staff members and students of local colleges and universities, statisticians of corporations, research committees of city councils, and reference librarians. The parent-teacher association is another organization which can give considerable assistance.

Many national associations provide material helpful in utilizing community resources. Some of these organizations have local representatives and offices in larger communities. Among the organizations that may give assistance are:

American Country Life Association
297 Fourth Avenue
New York, N. Y.

American Home Economics Association
620 Mills Building
Washington, D. C.

American Planning and Civic Association
901 Union Trust Building
Washington, D. C.

American Public Health Association
1790 Broadway
New York, N. Y.

Bureau for Intercultural Education
1697 Broadway
New York 19, N. Y.

Child Welfare League of America
130 East 22nd Street
New York, N. Y.

National Conference of Christians and Jews
381 Fourth Avenue
New York, N. Y.

National Conference of Parents and Teachers
600 South Michigan Boulevard
Chicago, Illinois

National Conference of Social Work
82 North High Street
Columbus, Ohio

National Safety Council
20 North Wacker Drive
Chicago, Illinois

National Municipal League
299 Broadway
New York, N. Y.

National Self-Government League
80 Broadway
New York, N. Y.

National Recreation Association
315 Fourth Avenue
New York, N. Y.

Soil Conservation Service, Division
   of Information
U. S. Department of Agriculture
Washington, D. C.[3]

State teachers colleges and universities and state departments of education, located in state capitals, can also give assistance.

The organizations discovered in each community can be grouped according to the topics around which the survey is to be made. For example, under "Recreation" would be grouped the public recreation department of the city government in charge of playgrounds, parks, and community centers; social settlement houses and neighborhood centers; the Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A.; Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, 4-H clubs, and the like. Under "Health" would be grouped the city health department, school nurses and physicians, county and city hospitals; health centers and clinics; and local health organizations such as the Tuberculosis Association and the Association for Prevention of Cancer.[4]

After the listing of community agencies is complete enough to serve the purpose of making a catalogue of community organizations, steps should be taken to secure the coöperation of representatives of those that offer promise as a source of instructional materials. It is important to secure the permission of the principal and superintendent before a teacher begins to confer with community leaders concerning educational needs. Of course, if a committee of teachers is set up, it will be appointed by the school administration, and community representatives will be selected by the superintendent in coöperation with community leaders. In approaching community groups it is more efficient to begin with coördinating and composite organizations such as the Coördinating Council or the Council of Social Agencies. Personal interviews in which the kinds of materials and coöperation the school needs can be explained are the best approach. After coöperation has been secured, questionnaires may be used to obtain specific facts from a large number of sources.

Information about community organizations should be collected, classified, and recorded in a form that facilitates use. In the Des Moines survey the following form was used for classifying and recording information:

Municipal Court
Municipal Court Building
    1. Function of the Agency: the official recording of all municipal court functions
    2. Excursion: Yes
        a) Size of group welcome: 8 or 10
            Time most convenient: Any time
            Days' advance notice: One
            Grade level: Senior high
        b) Contact: Municipal Clerk, Municipal Court Bldg., 4-6294
        c) Restrictions: No
    3. Guest Speakers: Yes
        a) Furnished in this field of government? No
        b) Furnished in other fields of government? Yes, Traffic
        c) Contact: Chief of Police, 3-4121, or Walter Priebe, 4-3038
    4. Demonstrations: No
    5. Visual Materials Available: No
    6. Pupil Participation: Yes
        a) Pupils may coöperate with this department by: Education in cause and effects of fines
        b) Grade level of participation: Senior high[5]

In making a list of community resources, information should be collected on places of interest as well as on organizations. For example, in a list of environmental resources in San Francisco, California, a sample item is:

    III. Fishing
        A. Fisherman's Wharf
            1. Foot of Powell Street
            2. Harbor for Italian Fishing Fleet
            3. Packing House—to send fish East in refrigerated cars (packed in ice, canned, etc.)
            4. Fish—bass, sole, sand dabs, rock cod, crabs, smelt, shrimps[6]

Another classification of information on places suitable for excursions is suggested by Marie Turner: "(1) Name of person, place, or thing to be visited; (2) Location; (3) Value of visit; (4) Transportation needs; (5) Time appropriate for visit; (6) Name of person to be contacted; (7) Necessary preliminary notification; and (8) Remarks."[7]

As teachers use community resources, it is helpful to keep a record of what is done and of the results in connection with each experience. This offers assistance in future situations and is helpful to other teachers if central records of excursions, outside speakers, and the like are kept. Another reason for keeping records of resources used is that it assists in preventing the overburdening of any community agency. In

using community resources special care should be taken to avoid difficulties by mastering the common techniques of community study.

Techniques of Community Study

The more important means of studying the community are through excursions, interviews, outside speakers, and the use of documents and visual aids. Each of these involves the use of many techniques.

Excursions

Excursions have become popular during the past quarter century in both Europe and the United States. Before World War II, groups of students at all ages were taking numerous excursions to points of local interest and even extended trips to nearby cities, to other sections of their own nation, and to other nations. The excursion is valuable in arousing interests; in collecting information; in developing self-confidence, responsibility, and coöperation; and in providing experience in such skills as observing, listening, and speaking. How excursions provide information in important social-studies areas is indicated by selections from the descriptions of field trips taken at the New Jersey State Teachers College:

Field Study No. 1—*Levels of Living.* What is the American standard of living? The answer is found by visiting middle-class homes in the suburbs, tenements on the East Side, luxurious uptown apartments as well as the resorts of the destitute such as rooming houses, missions, settlements, and squatters' shacks. Ventures in coöperative housing are also investigated as a part of this study.

Field Study No. 4—*Economic Institutions and Conditions.* Making a living is the major problem of most Americans. How it is done is seen in a sweatshop, a factory, a hotel kitchen, behind the scenes of a theater, in the plants that produce our newspapers and our automobiles, and in the banks and exchanges of the money mart. Economic institutions and conditions are studied in the light of changing social life.

Field Study No. 8—*The Prevention and Treatment of Crime.* Crime is a fascinating subject, but a sympathetic understanding of its causes and treatment can come only through visits to courts, police headquarters, reformatories, and prisons. The metropolitan area affords excellent material for this study.[8]

Planning an excursion.—Excursions, to be valuable as a learning experience, must be carefully planned. This applies to short trips as well as to long ones. A professor of geography has stated these general guides for teachers to follow:

1. Short trips with inexperienced people
   a) Do not spend too much time getting to the scene of action.
   b) Avoid crowding too much into a single trip.

    c) Provide opportunity for each member of the group to participate actively.
    d) Keep the whole proposition as simple as possible.
  2. Elaborate trips of one or two nights
    a) Surround the trip with a glamor of importance.
    b) The leader of the party must know his ground perfectly.
    c) Keep up the action and the interest.
    d) The schedule should not hurry things too much.
  3. Excursions involving two weeks or more of travel
    a) Plan the entire excursion from beginning to end.
    b) Do not announce to the members of the party all of the plan—surprises add to the interest.
    c) Give all members of the party periods of complete freedom from the schedule.
    d) Provide each individual with a skeleton schedule which indicates *stopping places* and probable time allocated to each stop.
    e) Each day give out a typed summary of the day's activities.
    f) Arrange hotel (or other sleeping and eating) accommodations so as to avoid unexpected difficulties with baggage or unnecessary confusion.[9]

After the teacher and class have decided on the purposes for which an excursion is to be taken and the possibilities available, a place, or places, to visit is selected. The teacher and class plan together what information they wish to secure from the excursion. The teacher, or someone who has visited the place already, describes the things that may be learned. A list of questions to guide the collection of information is prepared and discussed by the class. Reading and visual aids may be used to build a background for the excursion. The time that the excursion is to be taken, any materials that may be needed, and the methods of transportation are discussed. If permission of the principal or parents is required, arrangements are made to secure it.

Before going on the excursion the teacher should survey the situation and make arrangements with the persons in charge. Sometimes it may be desirable to take a committee from the class along on this preliminary visit. In making arrangements the teacher finds out whether the number in the class can be accommodated, arranges a date and time for the visit, and discusses with the persons in charge the information desired by the class. If any agency refuses to permit visits, the teacher should be understanding and not critical. A courteous acceptance of a rejected request may open up future opportunities. In any case, care must be exercised to secure good will for the school and to support sound public relations.

Teacher and class should discuss the problem of proper conduct on the excursion. The importance of securing the good will of those visited

can be stressed. Courtesy to all people giving assistance and a rigid respect for all property are necessary. Responsibility for teamwork and a concentration on getting the maximum value from the experience can be placed on each member of the group. Leadership responsibilities may be assigned to selected individuals. Everyone should take materials for recording the information gained. A safety code may be set up, containing such items as: "(1) do not wander away from the group; (2) keep hands and clothing away from machinery; (3) do not get on or off buses until they come to a full stop; (4) do not crowd or push others."[10]

During the excursion the teacher should exert positive leadership in securing information and in following the plans agreed upon. Students should take careful notes of what they observe and hear. Everything should be done to make the experience as pleasant as possible both for the students and for the persons who receive them at the place or places visited. Appreciation should be warmly expressed for assistance and courtesies received.

Using the information.—After the excursion is over, the information gained should be used by the class. The information collected can be discussed and conclusions reached concerning the questions to which answers were sought. Students may write papers or carry on other activities using the material they have gained. A series of questions about the trip may be asked by the teacher as a test of what information each individual acquired. Letters of appreciation should be written to the people who assisted on the excursion. The success of the trip can be appraised by the group, any problems encountered can be discussed, and plans can be made to enhance the value of subsequent excursions.

A teacher can continue to improve the effectiveness of excursions and build a constantly richer body of teaching resources for himself and other teachers in his school by keeping a record of the results of each excursion. In keeping such a record the following questions may be used as a guide:

(1 What was the purpose of the trip? (2) To what place was the trip made? (3) Could best results be secured with several small trips or one large one? (4) What mode of transportation was used? (5) What time was required for the trip? (6) What first-hand experiences did the children have? (7) What direct growth of individuals or the group resulted from the trip? (8) What use was made of the trip? and (9) What suggestions would you make to another making the same trip?[11]

Excursions are most profitable when they are carefully selected in relation to a unit of study. They are often used in introducing a unit. For example, a visit to a meeting of the city council may be used to

introduce a unit on community government; or a visit to a historical site may be utilized to set the stage for the study of a particular historical period or topic.[12] Excursions are also useful in securing information during the developmental or research period in the study of a unit. Sometimes students as well as teachers may suggest excursions where information required by the class may be secured. Once in a while an excursion is made as the culmination of a unit, but this use of excursions is rarer than either of the other uses.

A trip to the Grand Coulee Dam.—All the schools in the Investigation used excursions in varying degrees, depending on the community and on transportation facilities. One of the most extensive was the overnight trip made by Noah Davenport's students from Seattle to the Grand Coulee Dam. According to Mr. Davenport, the purpose was "primarily a study of geography, industry, agriculture, irrigation, forestry, mining, fisheries, highway and dam building, governmental agencies, and recreation areas."[13] Preparation for the trip went on for over a month. The students wrote for materials about the dam, interviewed persons in Seattle about the importance of the dam for the entire Northwest, and studied the geography and topography of the area and the agricultural and industrial possibilities which would be realized as a result of the dam. In addition to the preparation for what they wanted to see and learn, careful plans had to be made for the trip itself. Permission to make the trip had to be secured from parents and school officials, the route had to be planned, reservations had to be made for an overnight stop, arrangements for meals en route made, stops at various points of interest along the way planned, and arrangements made for getting the most out of the visit at the dam by talking to the proper persons and seeing the work to best advantage. A trip of six hundred miles requires that all details be worked out in advance if the students are to get the most from their experiences.

One of the greatest values which came from the trip was the new insight into human relationships which the students acquired. Mr. Davenport writes:

The excursion provided the life situation where the class members did the small meaningful services for each other in an atmosphere unclouded with school and home associations—serving each other at table, helping with packing and unloading, sharing the same cabin with one of another culture group, playing games and singing together around the evening campfire, riding for hours together in automobiles, sharing rich experiences of discovery. Children who had never spent a night away from home, who had never been away from the familiar customs and surroundings of their own culture group, now got a chance at new experiences together. We were all on an equal footing, senses keenly alert, studying American problems of immediate and pressing interest to all.[14]

Interviews

Information from more places can be secured and unnecessary excursions avoided by having an individual or a committee interview persons from whom needed information can be obtained and report the results to the class.

Preparation for the interview.—Successful interviews require as much careful planning as excursions. The person or persons interviewed are selected in accordance with the objectives to be achieved. Students who make the interview should have a sufficient background to determine what information is needed and from whom it may be secured, and they should prepare a list of questions to guide them in making the interview. When the appointment is made, the person to be interviewed should be told what information is desired and the purpose of the interview. It is often well to mail to him in advance a list of the questions which have been prepared.

Interview techniques.—Students need training in interview techniques before they make interviews. They should be told to be sure to take pencils and paper to record the information secured; to be prompt and courteous; to take as little time as possible; to avoid disputes; to ask their questions skillfully; to show alertness, interest, and appreciation; to observe keenly and listen intently; and to record carefully the information secured. Eldon Mason gives the following suggestions to students about to make an interview:

1. Have you your note paper, pen, and pencils?
2. When you enter the outer office:
    a) Remember that people are working. Be as inconspicuous as possible. If chairs are available, be seated.
    b) The committee chairman should announce your arrival and state that you have an appointment with Mr. Smith. (Never be late. It makes a bad impression.)
    c) If Mr. Smith is not immediately available, look about you. Notice the office appointments. Are voices harsh? Is there an air of business about the place? Would you like to work here? How are men and women dressed?
3. When Mr. Smith is ready to see you, the committee chairman should precede the other committee members. He should introduce himself, and then say something such as, "Mr. Smith, may I present the other members of the committee—Mary Ruth, Lucille Kirk, Besse James, John Roberts, and Paul Beals." (Note that the girls are introduced first.)
    a) Mr. Smith will probably begin the conversation, and the members of the committee can quietly get out their note paper and pencils. Do not do this with a distracting flourish. Let Mr. Smith feel this is merely a casual talk.

b) The chairman should have an extra set of questions available in the event Mr. Smith's are not at hand.

c) If for any reasons questions have not been sent to Mr. Smith in advance, several, if not all, of the committee should be prepared to ask questions.

d) Feel free to ask additional questions bearing on the subject at the conclusion of points made by Mr. Smith.

e) The questions should never suggest challenge or irritability. If Mr. Smith makes a remark which challenges something you have heard elsewhere, ask some such question as, "What is the reasoning back of the point of view of those who feel thus and so?"

4. Give Mr. Smith your undivided attention, except for note-taking.

5. Ask Mr. Smith for suggestions as to reading material which will help you in the study of the field.

6. After Mr. Smith has run through the list of questions he may inquire if there are further questions. If there are none, the chairman should avoid an awkward silence by thanking Mr. Smith for his time and help.[15]

Use of information obtained.—A letter of appreciation and thanks should be written to persons interviewed. A written report of the interview should be prepared and an oral report made to the class. In making the report to the class, visual aids such as charts, maps, and graphs are often helpful. The material presented should be related to the unit to be studied and used in drawing conclusions to the questions being investigated. The class should take careful notes on the report, and it is often a good idea to follow the report by a short test. Any problems encountered in the interview can be discussed in order that the effectiveness of the technique may be continually improved.

Outside Speakers

Another technique for securing information from persons in the community is to invite them to the school to speak to the class.

Preparation.—Preparation for using an outside speaker is similar to planning for excursions and interviews. Care should be exercised in selecting speakers who can make a contribution to the area being studied: pioneer settlers in a unit on the history of the community, members of the police forces during a study of crime or safety, persons who have traveled in other nations when the local community is being compared with other cultures. The class can make a list of questions which they want the speaker to answer and can plan how the presentation and discussion are to be conducted. The desirability of making a good impression on the speaker and showing proper appreciation for the time and effort contributed can be discussed.

When a speaker is invited to talk to the class, he should be informed about the area the class is studying, the kind of information which is

desired, and how the discussion is to be handled. He may be asked to bring any available illustrative material and to suggest sources of information for further study. The questions prepared by the class should be given to him. Speakers should be invited far enough in advance so that they can plan for the meeting and can make their maximum contribution.

Technique.—An effective technique is to have a student introduce outside speakers and briefly describe the work the class is undertaking. As the speaker lectures, the students should take notes on the information presented. After the speaker has completed his lecture, members of the class can ask questions and express their points of view. If members of the class differ with the point of view of the speaker, they should do so courteously and avoid contentiousness. At the end of the period the chairman and teacher will express the appreciation of the class for the service given the group. Later a note of thanks is sent to the speaker. The material gained from outside speakers may be used by the group in a manner similar to that suggested for excursions and interviews.

Use of Documentary Material

In addition to observing community activities and securing information from people, students will find considerable documentary material available in any community. The extent and kinds of documents differ, of course, from community to community. The library is the place to discover documents. Some cities have historical museums, and many cities have historical societies. The local Chamber of Commerce and the agencies of municipal government often make materials available for use in schools. Sometimes a local citizen has made a hobby of collecting materials about the life of the community. A few school libraries have built up local community collections. This is an excellent project for social-studies teachers to carry on with classes, extending and keeping the collection up to date year by year.

Kinds of materials to use.—Among the documents available in many communities are:

City directory
Court records
Diaries and memoirs
Letters
Local histories
Local newspapers
Magazines
Maps
Photographs

Publications of business
    organizations
Publications and records of local
    social agencies
Publications and documents of
    local historical societies
Records of local government
    agencies

School publications such as school papers, annuals, and the like

Studies that have already been made of the community

Telephone book

In addition to local communities, materials on the community may be obtained from the county, state, and national governments. Such federal agencies as the Department of Commerce, the Department of Labor, the Department of Agriculture, and the Bureau of the Census have materials bearing on the problems of local communities. Foundations and other private groups have made fact-finding studies in many communities and these and other published materials can usually be located by checking the catalogue in the local library.

The United States Census is a particularly valuable source of information on local communities. The census reports give accurate information not only on population, but also on housing, education, occupations, and industry. This information may be obtained from the Bureau of the Census at Washington or from one of the four hundred libraries that are used as depositories for government documents. If your town is small, a copy of the "Key to the Published and Tabulated Data for Small Areas" may be secured free. The *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, published annually, contains essential data in easily usable form and may be purchased from the Government Printing Office. The *World Almanac* and the *Statistical Abstract* contain material taken from the census reports as well as information from other sources.

Selection of documentary materials.—In selecting documentary materials care should be taken that the material contains information on the area being studied and contributes to the objectives desired. Accuracy, readability, and usability are criteria that can be used in the selection of documentary materials. The maturity of the students is, of course, an important consideration.

The students can learn to determine accuracy through the use of materials. It is a good policy to distinguish between primary or source, monographic, and secondary materials. *Source materials* are those in which either the person observes the situation himself, or the material was written down by someone who had observed the facts; in other words, they are first-hand. Source materials include such materials as diaries, court records, public documents, newspapers, photographs, maps, and the like. *Monographic materials* are studies of an area or problem based largely on source materials. Examples of monographic materials are theses, dissertations, and studies by foundations and fact-finding agencies. *Secondary materials* are based generally on monographs and other secondary works, with occasional use of source ma-

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terial. They include most books. Other things being equal, the closer to the source any material is, the more likely it is to be accurate.

Criteria that may be used in determining the accuracy of published materials include:

1. The qualifications of the author or authors
2. The judgment of authorities as expressed in reviews
3. The extent of documentation and the quality of the bibliographies
4. The reliability of the sources of information used by the author
5. The quality of the writing, organization, and thought in the book
6. The date of publication
7. The reasons for writing and publication
8. The reputation of the publisher

Approaches to the Study of Community

The *Fourteenth Yearbook* of the Department of Superintendence identifies the approaches to the utilization of community resources as observational, participatory, and contributory.[16] The *observational type* includes excursions, speakers, and interviews and involves the collection of information primarily through passive listening and observing. The *participatory type* includes the use of community resources through participation, such as in the use of the local library, membership in community groups, and the like. The *contributory type* involves participation not only for the purpose of use and for its value to the individual, but also for making a contribution to the improvement of community living in such areas as recreation, health, sanitation, safety, and housing. Paul Hanna, in his book *Youth Serves the Community*, describes numerous examples of the participation of youth in projects for community improvement.

Observation, participation, and contribution are not entirely distinctive categories. Most approaches to community study involve both observation and participation, and many also include a contribution to community life. In fact, the major emphasis in the utilization of community resources should be on community improvement. To make the use of community materials as concrete and practical as possible, the following approaches to community study seem more functional.

1. The community survey
2. Participation in community work and service
3. Local history
4. Studying the community as a part of regularly established courses in the social studies

The Community Survey

The use of the community survey in making a catalogue of community resources has already been discussed. Community surveys have

been used successfully in the pre-service and in-service education of teachers. They may also be used as a basis for curriculum reorganization and to improve school-community relations. One of the best values of the community survey, however, is as a learning experience for youth. A number of schools have conducted community surveys through the participation of students in social-studies classes.

The survey of political interest and information made by the boys in the Menlo School and Junior College under the direction of Robert N. Bush is rather typical of surveys which can be carried on by schools. The survey grew out of a discussion of the general apathy of the boys in a recent student body election.

One tentative conclusion that followed from discussion of this situation and survey of conditions was that "citizens are not vitally interested in problems of local government." Certain members of the class thereupon set out to see if this seemed to be true in the community as a whole as well as in student affairs and to see what could be done to remedy this glaring defect of government. The problem concerning state and county elections thus grew naturally from student discussion at a time when the forthcoming state election was the main issue of current news. "Ham and Eggs" was the main topic of conversation in every village and city in the state. Was it a good idea? What did it mean? Who was sponsoring it? The President of the United States had endorsed his favorite Senator only to find him defeated by the advocate of the "Ham and Eggs" plan. Another vital issue on the ballot was a proposal to prohibit picketing. San Francisco was the scene at the time of one of the most extensive department store strikes in the country. Thousands of warehousemen had been thrown out of work because a "hot car" of goods had been sent from warehouse to warehouse by the owners. Should laborers be prohibited from picketing? These topics served as points of discussion for several days in the class. Out of the discussion a series of problems emerged which the class felt to be important.

First of these was the question, "How well is the electorate informed concerning the issues and candidates in the forthcoming election?" Once it was decided that the answer to this could be obtained by interview and questionnaire, the first step in attacking this problem was to select certain candidates and issues that would be used as test cases. Then a series of questions were formulated. The actual form worked out is shown on pages 303-304.

The next job was to obtain a good cross-section sampling of the community. It was decided that each member should contact one or more individuals from the following groups in the community: (1) professional; (2) laboring; (3) business; (4) unemployed; (5) government employee; (6) domestic. The following week was spent in going out into the community engaging these individuals in conversation and obtaining the required information. Great interest in the project was engendered by this procedure. Some of the teachers in the school found themselves compelled to acquaint themselves with the candidates and issues, in order to make a good showing in the interview. Local

Survey of Electorate on Issues and Candidates

I. General Information on Individuals Interviewed:

    A. Occupation.......................... B. Age............ C. Residence..........................

    D. Registered and planning to vote?..

    E. Party registration...

II. General Information on Candidates for Office:

    A. Governor

        1. Who are the candidates?...

        2. Which one is preferred?...

        3. Why this preference?...

    B. United States Senator

        1. Who are the candidates?...

        2. Which one is preferred?...

        3. Why this preference?...

    C. United States House of Representatives

        1. Who are the candidates?...

        2. Which one is preferred?...

        3. Why this preference?...

    D. State Assemblymen

        1. Who are the candidates?...

        2. Which one is preferred?...

        3. Why this preference?...

    E. County Board of Supervisors

        1. Who are the candidates?...

        2. Which one is preferred?...

        3. Why this preference?...

III. General information on propositions that are to be on the ballot:

    A. How many propositions are going to be considered?.............................

    B. General information on specific propositions:

Proposition	Knew by Number	Knew by Title	Didn't Know	If Knew How Vote	Why?	If didn't know, how plan to learn?
#1 Labor						
#2 Anti-vivi-section						
#3 Public Utility Bond						
#20 Sales Tax Repeal						
#25 $30 Every Week						

IV. General Classification

A. Professional............   B. Business............   C. Laborer............

                                        1. Employer............   1. Skilled............

                                          2. Employee............   2. Unskilled............

D. Unemployed............   E. Government'

                                  employee............   F. Domestic............

newspapers began to inquire if they could publish the results of the survey. School newspaper photographers followed members of the class around to get shots of their interviewing. At the end of the week, the class met together, compiled the results of their survey, and formulated generalizations and conclusions on the basis of their findings. The question "What are the reasons for this state of affairs?" and "What are the possible consequences of it in a democracy?" were next discussed. Each member of the class checked his findings against similar surveys and conclusions in books and pamphlets in the social studies laboratory. Visits were made to the city council meetings. A member of the county board of supervisors and an ex-mayor of the city were called in to throw more light on the problem. Out of this emerged a carefully written report by each member of the class and a round table discussion of the difficulties of our democratic government.

Several organizations in the surrounding community asked for speakers to discuss the findings of the survey before their respective organizations. The newspapers in the area also published the results.[17]

Ronald Anderson of the Sequoia Union High School, Redwood City, California, directed his class in senior problems in the study of such community problems as housing, health, and traffic safety. The study of housing by this class contributed to securing a Federal Housing Project by San Mateo County. The traffic survey, conducted in co-operation with the California State Automobile Association, resulted in the Redwood City Traffic Study Committee's recommending several important changes in the traffic laws to the city council and having them accepted.

Chester Babcock's class in Lincoln High School, Seattle, Washington, coöperated with community leaders in making a vocational-opportunity survey in order to ease the transition from high school to work by the members of the class.

In a community survey the teacher and students should consider:

1. The educational values to be derived
2. The purpose of the survey
3. The area or areas to be investigated
4. The kinds of information needed
5. The location of the information
6. Techniques for collecting the information
7. The division of responsibility
8. The plan of action for making the survey
9. The actual collection of the information
10. The classification, tabulation, organization, and interpretation of the information collected
11. The reporting of the results
12. The implementation of the survey in a plan of action for community improvement

Educational values derived from surveys.—James Michener identifies the educational values for students from participation in community surveys, especially those dealing with community problems, by saying:

(1) The school has the right to anticipate that its students will develop into better citizens. (2) They will be more intelligent concerning the nature of community life. (3) They will be able to study other local problems for themselves and arrive at justifiable conclusions. (4) When they become adult voters, they should be more concerned about local government and social improvement than most adults now are. Finally, pupils gain a confidence in their own powers and in their own personalities.[18]

Thus, making a community survey contributes to all the major objectives of social education; it increases an understanding of the

culture; it furthers the development of wholesome ideals and values; and it gives practice in the basic social skills and in the processes of reflective thinking.

It is important that the teacher and class decide on the purpose or purposes of particular surveys before they begin one. Surveys may be used to collect information about topics being studied by the class, such as crime, health, and recreation; they are of value in the study of a local problem for the purpose of recommending or actually effecting solutions; and, finally, they may be of service to a group which is making a general or special survey for community improvement. As an example of the latter, social-studies classes might coöperate in a local land-use survey, in a survey being used in a curriculum-revision program, or in a survey of vocational trends being conducted by the Chamber of Commerce or by a public planning agency.

Kinds of surveys to make. The purpose, to a large extent, determines the topic or topics that will be selected to survey. Henry Harap has prepared an outline for community surveys which indicates the main areas that are important for school study. These are:

I. Brief History of the District	VII. Government
II. Topography and Natural Resources	VIII. Organized Group Life
	IX. Economic Life
III. Population	X. Communication and Transportation
IV. Health	
V. Home and Family Life	XI. The Arts
VI. Recreation	XII. Public and Private Welfare Work[10]

These areas can be further divided when making a specific survey. For example, economic life might be divided into such areas as ways of earning a living, vocational trends, and community marketing. Other areas might be added to Harap's list; for example, crime, housing, and community beauty are important areas, frequently studied, that have been omitted by Harap.

On the secondary-school level, a single class should not attempt a survey project that is too ambitious. A general community survey is a complex and difficult task. A class group might accept a part of a general survey which is being conducted by a large group. More frequently a class selects a single area or a subdivision of an area. In a large city the survey can be further limited to the neighborhood of the school. If the survey reports are kept in the library or a social-studies laboratory, several classes over an extended period of time might collect sufficient information for a general community report. A class that is spending a year in community study may be able, with

careful direction and diligent work, to present a fairly adequate picture of the life of a total community. Even here, however, severe limitations in the accuracy and completeness of the result are to be expected.

In selecting an area for a community survey, the following criteria are useful:

1. Will it contribute to the objectives desired?
2. Is it relevant to the total area being studied in the course?
3. Are the students interested in it and does it offer possibilities for satisfying their needs?
4. Will the survey be a service to the school and community? Service to the school here involves a concern for public relations. Not all topics surveyed are necessarily a community service, since some of them are directed primarily to the development of social competence on the part of the students.
5. Can the job be done within the time and with the facilities available? Can sufficient information be collected? Can the necessary coöperation of community agencies be secured? Is the task within the maturity level of the class?

Kinds of information to be collected.—After the area to be surveyed has been selected, the next step is to decide on the kind of information needed. This decision can best be made in terms of the use to be made of the information and the nature of the area to be surveyed. For example, Newell Eason states that a recreational survey may be used:

(1) as a basis for recreational planning, (2) to provide a basis for a community program of education in recreation, (3) to provide a basis for participation by all in building the recreation program, (4) to acquaint the student with the recreational problem by direct contact, (5) to provide a basis for social service by students in the recreation field.[20]

The nature of the area should be analyzed by the class, and a series of questions formulated indicating the important aspects of the area on which the class requires information to achieve its purposes. Henry Harap suggests the following questions that can be used in surveying the area of recreation:

1. Does the city or district government maintain a department of recreation? What are its functions?
2. How extensive are the recreational activities of the Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls and other clubs for young people?
3. Of what nature and how extensive are the opportunities for recreation offered by the district's social agencies? (Settlement houses, Y.W.C.A., Y.M.C.A., etc.)
4. What are the district's facilities for athletic sports? (Canoe clubs, yacht clubs, rowing, swimming, Lake Front Development, etc.)

5. What facilities for recreation are provided by industrial and commercial concerns for employees? (Recreation rooms, athletics, theatricals, contests)
6. Does the district maintain any public parks? What facilities do they provide?
7. Have there been any community efforts to provide public recreation in the form of festivals, pageants, and concerts? (Municipal concerts . . ., Youth Day, etc.)
8. Under whose auspices are concerts and musical entertainments brought to the district?
9. What organizations have been founded on the basis of a common hobby? (Photographers' club, stamp collectors, paint makers, businessmen's art club, etc.)
10. How has recreational reading been fostered in the district?
11. What is the status of organized amateur sports in the district? (Baseball, golf, basketball, hockey)
12. What is the status of commercial sports in the district? (Baseball, football, golf, basketball, hockey, polo, tennis)
13. What training does the district offer to leaders in recreation?
14. How do district schools . . . educate for recreation? (Dancing, art, music, physical education, natural science)
15. What are the most common outdoor activities of youth in the community?
16. What are the most common recreations carried on in the home?
17. Are there any private amusement activities in the district? (Dance halls, recreation halls, etc.)[21]

Harap's questions are on a somewhat advanced level and are stated in general terms. A teacher and class working together would state the questions specifically in their own language and in terms of their own community situation.

The analysis of the area being surveyed and the formulation of questions provide a guide to the kinds of information to be collected. Each question can be discussed by the class to determine the information needed, where it can be secured, and the techniques most suited to collecting it. The earlier sections of this chapter provide suggestions as to sources of information on the community and techniques for its collection. In the making of a survey, all the techniques discussed—excursions, interviews, outside speakers, and documents—can be utilized effectively.

Making the survey.—The class will need to assign responsibilities for collecting information. Background reading will be done by the whole class. The whole group will go on some excursions; committees and individuals will be selected to make interviews, to select and invite outside speakers, and to discover and use documents. Leadership respon-

sibilities should be assigned with considerable care, with each member of the class having a definite idea of what he is to do and how it is to be done. The importance of accuracy and orderliness in the collection and recording of information, coöperation with individuals and groups in the community, courtesy, and a conscientious fulfillment of tasks accepted should be stressed. Information collected will be shared by the group through reports and discussions. A careful record of achievement and a continuous evaluation of what is being done should accompany the making of the survey.

As the information is accumulated, classification, tabulation, organization, and interpretation are carried forward. The original analysis of the area and the questions stated are guides here, although the new insights gained will probably cause modifications in the original plan. The teacher should guide the class in the process of learning to form sound generalizations based on the information collected, and in the use of generalizations to develop recommendations for implementing the results of the survey.

Use of the data.—The survey may be reported in a written paper; orally through speeches or dramatization; or graphically by posters, charts, and the like. Some techniques that may be used in reporting and implementing the results are:

1. Making talks to groups concerned with the area surveyed
2. Writing articles for the school and community newspapers
3. Making reports to other classes in the school interested in the area studied
4. Holding a school or community assembly
5. Making a graphic display of the results
6. Speaking over the local radio station
7. Sending the report, writing a letter, or interviewing responsible authorities in the area studied and presenting the class's recommendations for action

Participation in Community Action

The study of community problems involves participation of youth in community activities. Some of this participation involves work with adults and gives youth the confidence and competence that come with the knowledge that he has successfully assumed responsibilities on the adult level. Before World War II, a wider participation of youth in community activities had been extensively recommended and occasionally put into practice. Some schools provided work experiences for older students. A few communities had apprenticeships in citizenship where youth were given an opportunity to participate in activities of the municipal government. The great demands for industrial workers

and for community service produced by the war greatly increased the participation of youth in community life. In fact, many young people stopped school to work full time; others stayed in school and worked part time. Practically all schools developed extensive programs of coöperation in community war activities.

Examples of school participation in community life.—The students in the Sequoia Union High School carry on many projects each year which call for active participation in community life. The following are some of the activities carried on during one school year as part of the school's contribution to victory in World War II.

1. A group of senior students planned a scrap steel drive in coöperation with civilian defense officials and teachers. Then the whole school participated in the drive.
2. The Redwood City Vital War Transportation Conservation Committee needed help in gaining community support for the pooling of rides. A speakers' bureau, composed of public speaking, United States history, and Senior Problems students, was organized under the direction of the speech teacher for the purpose of providing speakers to business, fraternal, and social groups with a brief direct appeal to them to pool their transportation. Over fifty community organizations were reached.
3. Posters were prepared for many community campaigns.
4. The school participated in stamp and bond sales and in the U.S.O. and Red Cross drives.
5. Volunteers were provided to work on nearby farms.
6. The basic course social-studies classes served as working units of the Junior Red Cross.

Some communities organized their wartime school activities on a city-wide basis. The five junior high schools of Pasadena organized a Junior War Council to direct their war efforts in a coöperative way, with two official representatives from each school chosen by its student council. An assistant principal in each school acted as an adviser. The Council stated its purposes as follows:

1. To work coöperatively rather than competitively
2. To pool ideas and suggestions as to programs of action
3. To provide opportunities for all students to help in the defense and war programs
4. To coöperate with the school and community in any emergency or in any existing plan of organization
5. To organize committees or sponsor community or school drives which would contribute to the total war effort

Even though the Council centralized school war activities, each school carried out its responsibilities according to its own plans and

under its own leadership. Some of the activities growing out of the War Council were a drive to sell war stamps with special student speakers in each classroom, posters, and assembly stunts; an emergency organization for fire fighters, safety patrols, entertainment committees, canteen committees, and messenger service; coöperation with the Junior Red Cross on its projects; coöperation with the industrial-arts coördinator in the making of miniature airplanes; and the sponsoring of a city-wide salvage drive.

Opportunities for community participation.—The opportunities for student participation in community-service activities produced by the war should be continued. Work experience in places of employment on a junior apprenticeship basis should be provided for older high-school students. More opportunities for participation in responsible citizenship activities should be opened. Young people can assist in nursery schools; on community playgrounds; as leaders of cub scout groups and other organizations of younger children; on safety patrols; and in campaigns for the improvement of community health, safety, housing, and beautification. The Chamber of Commerce of the United States has issued a pamphlet entitled *A Procedure for Community Post-War Planning*[22] which describes how the leaders of Albert Lea, Minnesota, made a survey of future vocational opportunities in their community. High-school youth can render valuable services in surveys such as this. They can provide basic information for many aspects of community planning and community improvement.

Social-studies teachers should exert leadership in providing opportunities for community participation, and they should guide such participation so that students gain the maximum educational value from it. Community participation by youth is of limited value unless it is an integral part of the program of the school. For example, participation in community citizenship activities should accompany the study of local, state, and national government. During World War II rationing provided an excellent opportunity to motivate and give meaning to consumer education. Scrap collection made planning for the intelligent use of natural resources a recognizable problem. The sale of war stamps and bonds opened up the whole problem of the financial support of government. Thus, participation in responsible community activities by youth can be made an integral part of social-studies instruction.

Local History

The local-history approach to the study of the community is being used with increasing frequency. Some communities are devoting a year's work to the study of local history. It is used in some schools as a basis for the study of the local environment in the seventh grade; in

other schools it is used as an approach to American history on the eighth-grade level or to community civics on the ninth-grade level. It is also being studied as part of the contemporary-problems course in the twelfth grade.

Educational values from studying local history.—Local history is a useful approach to the social studies because all social action takes place in local communities, and the background of any social problem or any aspect of history may be approached from the study of a locality. As A. C. Krey points out, there exist in almost every local community examples of man's progress in every period of history and from all parts of the world.[23] Students learn much history from informal experiences in community life which can be utilized as a foundation for a more formal study in the classroom.[24] By beginning the study of history in the local community, students gain direct experiences which will give concrete meaning to their study of other times and places. At the same time their understanding of contemporary life in their own communities will be deepened and broadened by comparing their culture with cultures distant in space and time. The increased insight thus gained should help them to participate more effectively in community living.

Among the values gained from a study of local history are:

1. A deeper understanding of the everyday life in which the individual participates and a basis for understanding problems of the state, nation, and world
2. An interest in and love for one's own community which lays the foundation for community loyalty and unity
3. An understanding of the relation of ways of living to the geographic environment
4. An understanding and appreciation of the contributions of other peoples and other cultures to the richness of daily living, which should result in an improvement of interethnic and intercultural relations
5. A basis for objectivity and perspective in the appraisal of current events
6. Direct experience in using the techniques of historical research, in practicing basic social skills and reflective thinking, and in working with age-mates and adults in the performance of mutually interesting and significant tasks[25]

Topics to include.—In the study of local history, the class should formulate a series of questions to which answers are to be secured. The following questions are illustrations of those that might be included.

Who were the first settlers of your community? Where did they come from? What kinds of homes did they have in their old communities? How did they earn a living in their old communities? Why did they leave their old homes?

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How did they decide where to go? Who were their leaders? How did they travel? What things did they bring with them?

What was the site of your community like when the settlers first came? Was the land high or low? Was it flat or hilly? Was it rocky? Was the soil fertile? Was it near rivers, lakes, or oceans? Were there harbors? Were there forests or grasslands, dry plains or deserts? What kinds of trees, bushes, or other plants grew there? What kinds of animals lived there? Was it rainy or dry? Was it hot, cold, or both? Were there minerals that could be mined? If so, what were they?

How were the Indians who dwelled in your area living before the new settlers came? What did the Indians eat? How did they get their food? What kinds of houses did they have? How did they make their houses? What kinds of clothes did they wear? Where did they get the materials for them? How did they travel from place to place? How did they communicate? What things did they make? How were these things made? Were these Indians peaceful or warlike? How did they help the settlers? Why did they help or hinder?

How did the new settlers provide themselves with houses, food, and clothes? How did they divide the land? How was the plan for the community developed and laid out? How were the first houses built? What tools and techniques were used? Were the new houses like the old ones they had left? If not, why? What kind of furniture did they use? Did the older inhabitants in the area help?

How did the settlers get their food? Did they use the same kinds of food they had in their old homes? Did they find any new kinds of food? Did they find new ways to farm, fish, and hunt? Did the old inhabitants of the area teach them anything? How did the settlers get clothes? What materials did they use? Did styles change?

What kinds of work did the settlers do? Who did the difficult kinds of work? Where had they learned to do the work? What tools were used? Who made them? Did the people do their work by hand or did they have machines? If so, what kind and how were they useful? What businesses grew to be important? Why? What did the people of the community make to sell to people who lived outside the town or in other communities? What things were bought from people in the surrounding area or in other communities? What kinds of transportation and communication were used? How high was the standard of living?

What was community life like? What churches were there in the community? How did people use their leisure time? What kinds of education were available? How healthy were the people? Did the people of the community work well together? How were laws made? How well were they obeyed? How actively did people participate as citizens in the community? Did their community develop a personality? Did it have community spirit? What was its nature? Was the community beautiful? Did it have hopes for the future?

How was the community changed? How did the population grow? Why? From what places did new settlers come? What did they add to community

life? What new ways of earning a living developed? Why? Was community prosperity increased or decreased? Why? How have transportation and communication changed? In what ways has the use of leisure time changed? What changes have been made in education? In community health and sanitation? In community government? In what ways has the community become more dependent on other communities? Why? What are the major community problems that have emerged? What are the plans of the community for the future?[20]

Not all the above questions are suitable for use in many communities. The whole group is, of course, too comprehensive for use except in planning for an extended period of study. In studying local history, social-studies teachers should ascertain that the areas selected for investigation are within the maturity level of the class and can be covered in the time available. The best method is to formulate the questions to be studied in local history through pupil-teacher planning and to appraise realistically the difficulties that may be encountered. The area in time and space that can be covered is directly related to the maturity of the class, the size of the community, the accessibility of materials, and the time available.

Techniques to use.—The techniques and materials for studying local history have already been discussed in this chapter. Materials include people, artifacts, and documents. Techniques include excursions, interviews, outside speakers, and the use of source materials, monographs, and secondary works.

The study of local history provides an excellent opportunity to secure community interest and coöperation. The results of the study can be presented to various local groups through exhibitions, pageants, dramatic skits, and speeches. Programs can be presented over the local radio station. Articles can be written for the school and local newspapers. Classes in some schools have written and made books on local history to be placed in the school or public library.

Community Study as a Part of Established Courses

The discussion of the various approaches to the study of the community has included illustrative reference to almost all the courses in the social studies that are commonly offered in the secondary school. The following list summarizes the utilization of community resources in typical social-studies courses from the seventh through the twelfth grades.

1. *Seventh grade:* In the study of geography, the local environment can be used constantly in making many geographic concepts meaningful, in making maps, in showing geographic interdependence, and in demonstrating how the natural environment affects daily living. In

some schools in the Investigation where the community was the center of emphasis in the seventh grade—as, for example, in Salt Lake City, Denver, and Pasadena—community resources of all kinds were used heavily.

2. *Eighth grade:* In eighth-grade American history—where such topics are studied as the rise of the industrial northeast, the plantation south, and the free-farm west; the development of waterways, highways, railways and airways, and domestic and international trade; recreation, sport, and social life; and the rise and influence of major communication industries[27]—the historical background of the local community can be used as a point of departure and for illustrative purposes.

3. *Ninth grade:* If community civics is taught, it is obvious that the utilization of community resources is basic. In occupational civics the ways of earning a living in the local community can be the center of emphasis. If global geography is emphasized, the dependence of the local community on other communities and the interdependence of the world would be stressed.

4. *Tenth grade:* World history can be approached by beginning with an analysis of the local community to show how all periods of the past and all parts of the world have contributed to our daily living.

5. *Eleventh grade:* If the emphasis in eleventh-grade United States history is on a democratic nation in a world setting, the history of democracy in the local community and its increasing interdependence with the rest of the world can be constant reference points.

6. *Twelfth grade:* The study of contemporary problems can be made concrete and practical by first analyzing a problem as it exists in the immediate environment, then extending the study in time and space, and finally returning to the local situation to make applications on the basis of understandings gained and generalizations formed.

Criteria for Selecting Activities Utilizing Community Resources

Social-studies teachers may use the material in this chapter to develop a list of criteria to use in the selection and appraisal of community activities. The following is a suggestive list adapted from a more extensive one prepared by Julian C. Aldrich.[28]

A. Criteria in terms of level of difficulty
   1. Does the activity acquaint pupils with the resources of their own community?
      a) Are the phases of community life studied typical? If not, are they recognized as atypical?
      b) Is the study based on a fair picture of the phases studied, and would it be considered fair by people engaged in them?

    c) Does the study show the relationships of the parts studied to the community as a whole and to other communities?
2. Does the activity permit the pupils to envision the community as a social organization with human interrelations?
    a) Is the activity related to several phases of community life and does it permit students to see as many of the social and economic forces which affect community life as is possible on the students' maturity level?
    b) Does it offer relations with persons who are seen as human beings with needs, desires, and ideals?
    c) Does it offer opportunities to observe differences between objectives and practices, and conflicts between individuals and groups in the community?
3. Does the activity encourage pupils to acquire a relatively objective and well-balanced point of view toward their own and other communities?
4. Does the activity utilize the immediate community as an illustration of broader and basic contemporary problems and trends?
5. Does the activity give the pupil opportunity to participate coöperatively in community movements?
B. Criteria in terms of social value to the community
1. Does the activity relate to a basic, continuing problem rather than to superficial aspects of it?
2. Does the activity increase the desire to participate actively in community life?
3. Will the community accept the activity as a legitimate phase of the school program?
4. Does the activity develop a recognition of the inevitability of social change?
5. Does the activity increase the desire to work for the general welfare?
6. Does the activity provide for coöperation with community agencies?
C. Criteria in terms of educational value to the student
1. Does the activity meet the needs of the students in the class? Is it interesting and challenging to them?
2. Can the students participate in planning the activity?
3. Does the activity provide for the meeting of individual differences?
4. Is the activity on the maturity level of the students?
5. Does the activity contribute to the development of socially desirable understandings, ideals, skills, and abilities?

Not all the above criteria will be met in the utilization of community resources. The teacher, however, can select activities that meet as many desirable criteria as possible in terms of his philosophy and the behavioral objectives he is seeking to achieve through social-studies instruction. Community resources, like other materials, are educa-

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tionally productive only to the extent that they are intelligently used by teachers in the development of individual and social competence.

School-Community Relations

The utilization of community resources in social-studies classes brings the teacher and school into close relations with community groups and leaders. These relationships can be used to build a better understanding and a sounder support of the program of the school or they can result in misunderstanding and attacks on the school. All teachers are properly objects of interest and concern on the part of parents and community leaders, but this is especially true of social-studies teachers, who are likely to deal with highly controversial issues and topics.[20] For this reason social-studies teachers need to exercise special care in public relations.

The basis of good public relations is clean living, a friendly personality, community service, and the loyalty of students and parents that comes from successful classroom teaching. The social-studies teacher should consequently concentrate on a high level of performance in his job; participate as actively as possible in community activities; and make friends with and gain the respect of students, parents, and community leaders. Whenever questions of community relations are concerned, teachers have the responsibility of consulting the school administration. This occurs often in the area of community study. A wise policy for a teacher is to consider himself an educational ambassador to the community and to take advantage of every opportunity to present a positive interpretation of the work of the school. Conversely, school policy, administrators, and fellow teachers should not be discussed adversely outside the school. Besides being a breach of professional ethics, such practices jeopardize the support for the whole school program and inevitably reflect unfavorably on the teacher who is undiplomatically critical of the school in which he works.

Recognizing the importance of school-community relations, the participants in the Stanford Social Education Investigation formulated the following principles and policies during the 1942 summer workshop.

1. Education is the function of the total community; consequently, all members of the community should have the opportunity to participate in the formation of educational policy to the extent of their interest and ability. Techniques that have been effective in this area include:
   a) The formation of parent-teacher-student councils for schools, grade levels, classes, etc.
   b) Calling in parents and leaders of community groups for study and consultation on school problems about which they are particularly concerned

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c) The sampling of parent and community opinion through interviews, questionnaires. group meetings, etc.

2. A community minority group should not be allowed to dominate the school program.

3. Every citizen of the community should jealously guard the integrity of the public school program as one of the most precious and essential factors in the preservation and better realization of democratic values.

4. The school should be an integral part of the community.

   a) Community, experiences should be utilized as a part of the educational program on all grade levels.

   b) The school should become a service center in carrying out programs for community improvement, providing information on important problems, and in the furtherance and coördination of all activities involving the welfare of children and youth.

   c) The school should act as a coördinator among the other agencies of the community whose chief purpose is to serve youth.

      (1) Health

      (2) Juvenile Court

      (3) Recreational Council

5. The school has a responsibility to keep the public well-informed about its educational program.

   a) A high morale among students should be maintained, and each student should be capable of answering intelligently questions about the school program.

   b) Teachers should maintain a high standard of professional ethics in community relations and should utilize every opportunity in face to face contacts and as members of community groups to give a constructive interpretation of the school program.

   c) Representatives from important community groups should be invited to visit the school and report on its program to their organizations.

   d) Opportunities should be sought to interpret the program of the school through such mediums as:

      (1) A school speakers' bureau

      (2) Addresses by school personnel

      (3) The making of documentary motion pictures about school life

      (4) The use of the local newspaper and radio

   e) The school program should be interpreted in terms of easily understood, positive symbols. All mimeographed and published materials should be read for the purpose of determining their effect on public relations.

   f) The most essential factors in school morale and public relations are:

      (1) Clarity in objectives

      (2) Effectiveness in action

      (3) Breadth in participation

    (4)   Clarity in interpretation

    (5)   Respect for personality[30]

In a school where community resources are extensively used, it is desirable to give one person in the school responsibility for acting as a clearing house for excursions and other community activities. This person can avoid the placing of too heavy a burden on anyone in the community by keeping a check list of the number of times a particular agency or group is used and by advising teachers whenever there are too many requests at too frequent intervals. Interclass committees can be utilized when more than one class is working on the same topic or problem to avoid unnecessary duplications in excursions and interviews and in the use of outside speakers. Better understanding and coöperation are secured when community leaders are informed of what the school is attempting to do and why it is important. A consideration for the rights and sensibilities of others and a proper appreciation of favors granted and services rendered do much to develop a feeling of friendliness toward the school and its program.

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THE USE OF PERSUASION MATERIALS

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER in the average public school system is glad to receive free materials. Many agencies and organizations develop and generously distribute excellent materials which the teacher can use. Some of these materials come from agencies representing particular areas of interest, such as welfare agencies, labor unions, and business groups. These materials are usually written for a purpose and with a definite point of view. Consequently they have often been called "propaganda" materials. Some school systems have prohibited their use in the classroom.

This question of whether or not "propaganda" materials should be used in the public schools involves the total responsibility of the public school in teaching the behaviors needed for good citizenship. If the school can become successful in teaching students to become discriminating consumers of persuasion materials, then there is no reason why they should be kept out of the classroom. There are, in fact, many reasons why they should be brought into the classroom. In terms of the teacher's general responsibility for teaching critical thinking, three questions may be asked:

1. What position should the school take in relation to the activities described under "propaganda analysis"?
2. What behaviors should be developed in youth so that they can learn to use all materials with discrimination and critical-mindedness?
3. Where and how should such instruction be incorporated into the program of social education?

The School and Propaganda Analysis

Until the late thirties, it was rather widely assumed that the school should teach the techniques of propaganda analysis so as to render the individual impervious to the devices of those who sought to manipulate opinion. The inauguration of an "Institute of Propaganda Analysis" lent further prestige to this point of view. Later this entire approach, in terms of both philosophy and practice, was seriously questioned, especially after the outbreak of World War II. Lewis Mumford, in *Faith for Living*,[1] criticized the pragmatic liberal and his

arid intellectualism. Another accusation frequently made was that American analytical education had produced a generation of cynics, equipped with devices and techniques of intellectual criticism, but lacking in the power to recognize moral principles and to live by them. Bruce Lannes Smith, for example, felt that propaganda-analysis teaching methods then in use developed "an extremely high, if not menacing," degree of cynicism, "especially among adolescents."[2]

On the whole, the charges were essentially fair in certain respects. This does not mean that teachers who taught propaganda analysis were consciously trying to produce a nation of disillusioned cynics, nor does it mean that they were working toward an objective which was essentially undesirable. It means that the issue had been oversimplified and that teachers are now in a better position to make a mature evaluation of their past thinking and practice and to provide a better basis for future action.

In a very large sense, the oversimplification tended to center around the concept of *propaganda* itself. The word has a respectable ancestry. It comes from a Latin term meaning *to sow,* or *disseminate,* and the Roman Catholic "College of Propaganda" was a missionary society dedicated to spreading the gospel. In the pre–World War I era, propaganda simply meant persuasion, the dissemination of ideas and convictions. Then came World War I and the subsequent period of extreme disillusionment. We were told that our entrance into the war had been influenced by propaganda, and this propaganda was usually associated with the atrocity stories of the Belgian campaign. To the American mind, therefore, propaganda no longer meant merely persuasion; it meant downright, unmitigated misrepresentation. It meant doctored photographs, stories cut out of whole cloth, perversions of the truth by writers who racked their imaginations for new and ingenious cruelties to ascribe to the enemy. Propaganda therefore was to be avoided by good citizens as they would avoid the plague.

It came to be recognized, however, during the 1930's, that the issue of propaganda was more subtle than the issue of facts and falsehoods. Propaganda was seen as depending on distortion as much as on untruth, and this distortion might conceivably be based on a partial presentation of facts. Furthermore, propaganda had something to do with emotional connotations and symbols. Walter Lippmann's brilliant analysis of stereotypes[3] showed how a propagandist might influence thinking without ever committing himself on the truth or falsity of his statements. Then also the master propagandist of the twentieth century, Adolf Hitler, wrote his *Mein Kampf* for all the world to read and in it revealed a conception of propaganda as an

application of a variety of principles of theoretical psychology. Hitler recognized the value of falsehood to the propagandist, but he saw that mere falsehood was only one tool in the kit of those who wish to manipulate opinion to their own advantage.

With the outbreak of World War II the issue became more than a mere philosophical point for discussion. Both sides hurried to get their cases before the American public. And the American public reacted by refusing to believe much of what it heard—Axis or Allied, British or German. To many Americans war news was all propaganda uttered on the basis of nationalistic self-interest. The American people were reacting in terms of an era of cynicism and disillusionment. The depression had brought personal tragedy to millions of people. Many remembered not only the propaganda of World War I, but also the confident statements of national leaders that prosperity was just around the corner. They remembered financial leaders convicted of fraudulent practices and the exposés of munition-makers. They vowed they would never fight a war on behalf of the British Empire and frankly considered the 1939 conflict a struggle between rival imperialisms.

The fall of France in June of 1940 had a powerful effect on American emotions. Cynicism gave way to fear. This reaction, however, was still largely confined to only part of the American people. The isolationists, forced to defend their position with more vigor than before, began to charge that everything said on behalf of the Allies was propaganda. On the other side, interventionists began to call attention to the possibility that fear of propaganda had paralyzed the nation's power to act. Archibald MacLeish joined Mumford in criticizing the intellectual cynicism which up to that point had kept many people insisting on neutrality. Then came the attack on Pearl Harbor. Immediately fear of propaganda ceased and the American people turned their full energies to winning the war.

The problem, however, of what the schools should do about persuasion materials has not been solved. Nobody can suggest that a good citizen is one who uncritically believes everything he reads and hears. There is general agreement that within the framework of moral convictions, people still need to exercise intelligence and critical thought, to have a well-balanced set of understandings, attitudes, and skills.

Therefore, when all has been said, when the errors of the past and of previous oversimplification have been recognized, there is still the problem of educating people for effective critical thinking. The aftermath of World War II has increased rather than decreased this necessity. To educate people for critical thinking, a new approach to the problem is needed.

The following statement of principles represents a suggested platform for future action in this area.

1. Frankly recognize that in an age of cultural conflict there will be many groups seeking to convince the public that their causes are just. Realize that these groups will use propaganda and that they will seek to persuade others to support their point of view.
2. Stop trying to define propaganda in any absolute sense and, above all, admit that there is probably no technique for telling propaganda from nonpropaganda.
3. Cease thinking of propaganda itself as wicked or immoral. Recognize that propaganda is used in good causes as well as in bad ones. Try to determine the motive of propaganda and to evaluate that motive in relation to a value system. Realize that a cause may be worth fighting for even if it does use propaganda. The main issue is not whether it uses propaganda, but whether it is a good cause. However, an unscrupulous use of persuasion techniques should make us suspect the cause and subject it to close scrutiny.
4. Stress the development of integrated personalities so that critical thinking will be directed by broad understandings and wholesome value standards.
5. Regard the determination of the accuracy of data as an essential step in reflective thinking, the purpose of which is not merely to discover inaccurate data, but to seek reliable information that can be used as the basis for sound thought and effective action.
6. Within this framework, make use of all the techniques that are helpful.

This platform may help teachers to view this problem as a phase or step in the general process of reflective thinking. One of the crucial steps in the process of reflective thinking is evaluating data. If the data used are inaccurate or inadequate, the resulting conclusions will not serve as a good basis for action. The skills involved in the evaluation of data, therefore, are among the most significant to be developed in general education, and included in these are the behaviors ordinarily thought of in connection with propaganda analysis. It is imperative that adolescents increase their proficiency not only in collecting and interpreting data, but also in appraising its usefulness with critical intelligence and power.

Behaviors Needed for Effective Use of Propaganda or Persuasion Materials

An analysis of the behavior pattern of an effective democratic citizen in relation to persuasion or propaganda reveals that he should possess certain knowledges, skills, and values which are largely the responsibility of the social-studies teacher.

1. *An effective democratic citizen understands the rôle and significance of persuasion in our society and views it objectively from the standpoint of an interested consumer.*—This behavior involves both understanding and attitude. The reason for including both under the same heading is that attitude in this case seems to be particularly dependent on understanding.

In an age of secondary relationships and conflicting interests, there are bound to be pressure groups. The modern citizen must expect to be barraged continuously by those representing labor, capital, small business, large business, farmers, teachers, taxpayers, and other social, economic, and political combinations. This understanding is fundamental to any objective approach to the use of persuasion materials. All these groups are granted the right to try to persuade the public, but the people reserve for themselves as individuals the right to be critical of such persuasion and to decide for themselves what they shall accept and reject. The right to carry on persuasion is thus a fundamental liberty in a democratic society. It is the only way in which minorities can seek to convert the majority to their points of view. To deny this right is equivalent to a denial of the democratic process itself. Conversely, each persuading group has the obligation in a democratic society to carry on its persuasion in the manner most consistent with broad social purposes. A check list which a group may use in evaluating its persuasion from that standpoint is given at the end of this section.

The effective citizen, therefore, refrains from taking a moral attitude against all persuasion. The tendency to regard propaganda as a sinister and unwholesome influence limits the effectiveness of the citizen as he approaches the problem of evaluating data. It leads to the feeling that only rascals use propaganda or persuasion. The problem, however, is not only to be critical of what wicked people offer for belief, but also to evaluate as objectively as possible the persuasion of honest, well-meaning people and groups. The question that needs to be raised when someone tries to use persuasion is not "What are you trying to put over?" but rather "How much and which parts of what you are saying can be accepted as dependable evidence?" If the persuader is obviously untruthful or is openly distorting reality, his ideas are rejected and evidence to use as a basis for action is sought elsewhere. If, on the other hand, the negative connotations of the term *propaganda* are held to, an individual can often be unduly and unjustly prejudiced against someone's persuasion simply because it has been given a bad label.

It would be useful in developing this behavior to point out the

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GROUPS
seeking to per-
suade the public
to their viewpoints
use ------------

--> Mediums of Com-
munication ------

--> To the consuming
citizen --------

--> Who carries on
behaviors which
help him evaluate
the persuasion as
a basis for -------

--> Conclusions and
social action

The Printed Page

Visual Mediums

Auditory Mediums

CITIZEN

1
2
3
4
5
6

Understanding of Role
of Persuasion

Determination of
Motives

Analysis of
Communication Symbols

Checking on Quotations
and Authorities

Checking
Logical Reasoning

Use of Checklists
and Other Helps

historical origin and development of the term *propaganda*, to show how its negative connotations have been a product of circumstances and accidents of history rather than of any inherent wickedness in the idea. High-school students could study the way in which the term came into disrepute during World War I. This would help them to realize that this word, like many others, has not always carried a negative association.

As part of his action in this behavior, the effective citizen realizes the futility of seeking an exact definition of propaganda that will cover all its uses. The tendency to seek an absolute definition of terms is destructive of good thinking. One way to help students realize that propaganda is a difficult term to define is to bring to their attention the numerous definitions proposed for it. Leonard Doob[4] found over one hundred such definitions. Some try to define propaganda in terms of falsehoods, others in terms of intent, and still others in terms of the self-interest of the propagandist. If high-school students are exposed to these varying definitions proposed by experts, they are likely to develop a more flexible and realistic point of view on the problem. Also there will be less likelihood that they will divide the universe into propaganda and nonpropaganda. Their question more likely will be "What use can I make of this material in studying my problem or topic?" rather than "Is this propaganda?"

One of the consequences of universally regarding propaganda negatively is the tendency to judge a cause adversely if the use of propaganda techniques is suspected. The term "British propaganda" which grew up in the United States after World War I led many people to develop an anti-British attitude. When World War II broke out, the attempts of the British to put their case before the world was severely hampered by this memory of "British propaganda." The conclusion drawn by many Americans was that since the British used propaganda they obviously had a bad case and were as bad as the Germans, who also used propaganda.

Some teachers and students have tried to avoid this dilemma by distinguishing "good" propaganda from "bad" propaganda. It is perhaps more realistic to admit that propaganda itself, since it is not an absolute, can hardly be described as good or bad. Rather than to distinguish between good and bad propaganda, it is important to distinguish between good and bad causes or, to put it in more relative terms, to distinguish between *better* and *worse* causes. The decision as to which of two causes is better depends on one's value system. In terms of the American value pattern, the British cause was preferable to the German cause at the outbreak of World War II. The fact that

the British used propaganda, therefore, need not have been an important factor in arriving at a decision on the issue.

Teachers can point out the techniques used by promoters of many good causes, such as health and safety. No one could question the worth of the cause in a health or safety campaign, and yet it is obvious that many propaganda techniques are used. It might be an interesting activity for students to bring in all the examples of what they consider to be propaganda in a worth-while cause and to prepare an exhibit of these materials.

At the same time we must recognize that some clues as to the worth-whileness of a cause may be secured from the character of the persuasion techniques used. If a student finds gross falsehoods in persuasion material, he has a right to be suspicious of the motives of the persuader and of the value of the cause being promoted. This is not, however, an infallible guide. The importance of safety would not be decreased one particle even if a safety organization deliberately falsified accident statistics in order to frighten the American public. In that case the organization would be condemned but not the value of safety itself.

The modern citizen who understands the rôle of persuasion is sensitive to persuasion analysis at all times and in relation to many channels of communication. Many people are sensitive to persuasion in books, magazine articles, and newspapers, but are oblivious to it in connection with radio or motion pictures. The work of the persuader is made much easier if people do not realize his motives or understand his techniques. The Nazi propaganda of the "whispering campaign" was particularly effective because people ordinarily are not sensitive to propaganda implications in conversation with their friends. When an American heard from his friend that the British used as few of their own soldiers as possible in the front lines, he ordinarily did not stop to consider what the source of such a rumor might be. If he did, he was less likely to come under its influence.

One way to insure the development of this behavior is to make available to students a wide variety of materials. In his four years of work in high school, a student ought to use all types of materials and should become accustomed to evaluating them critically under the wise direction of a capable teacher.

2. *An effective democratic citizen seeks to determine the motives or purposes of those who are carrying on persuasion.*—There is a motive back of each piece of persuasion material. The motive may be either good or bad, but it is important to understand clearly what it is. Since students will find it difficult to determine motives if they are inade-

quately prepared in terms of background and understanding, it is important that units be given rich and significant content. When the complaint arises that the unit is too "thin," the students are not likely to determine motives accurately or adequately. Therefore, a first principle in developing this behavior is to help students get concrete information about the various agencies or groups involved in the study of a problem or topic.

Teachers can encourage discussions among students as to the motives for issuing the materials used in many kinds of units. Frequently there may be disagreement as to the motive, and the discussion growing out of this disagreement will help to sharpen general awareness of motives. In the eleventh-grade unit on public opinion, it would be a good project to make a chart of the important purposes of various organized groups in our culture, such as the Chamber of Commerce, the Republican party, the Democratic party, the National Association of Manufacturers, the C.I.O., the A.F.L., and the National Education Association. Each of these groups has a distinctive general line of thought it is striving to advance, and a summarizing chart could provide students with a framework within which to interpret the specific pieces of literature put out for public consumption.

3. *An effective democratic citizen is skilled in the analysis of the communication symbols used in persuasion materials.*—The effective citizen needs to develop the ability to react intelligently to emotional symbols, stereotypes, glittering generalities, and concepts. Every culture has positive symbols which evoke a warm emotional response from the individual. If a persuasion expert can use these symbols in association with his viewpoint, he attracts many people to his ideas. Many groups, for example, have made free use of the American flag as an association symbol in their persuasion materials. The Nazi Bund used to place large pictures of George Washington on their platforms at public meetings. It is up to the individual in the culture to learn to recognize such use of association symbols. This does not mean that he will necessarily reject the cause of the group which uses them. It does mean, however, that he will seek other bases for giving or withholding his allegiance, while of course at the same time maintaining his attachment to Washington and the flag as symbols of the American nation and the American way of life.

Walter Lippmann in his book on this subject pointed out conclusively how our thinking is influenced by these "pictures in the mind." Most people have stereotypes of the Englishman, Russian, Frenchman, Chinese, Japanese, and Negro which condition their thinking about people of other nations and races. Stereotypes for the labor leader,

businessman, college professor, teacher, and politician often confuse thought about economic and political problems. One of the best ways to teach about stereotypes is to make free use of cartoon material. Cartoonists for newspapers and magazines create stereotypes to use in supporting or opposing individuals, groups, and programs of action. A study of these cartoons will do much to illuminate the use of the stereotype in influencing the thought and action of most people.[5]

Teachers and students can seek constantly to look for the hidden stereotypes in one another's thinking. A boy might be bitterly opposed to labor unions and back of his antipathy could be a stereotype of a plug-ugly labor leader. Another boy might be bitterly opposed to business leaders on the basis of cartoon caricatures he has seen. Often people are hesitant about admitting the influence of a stereotype, and the frank recognition of its effects has a generally healthful effect.

In his consumer use of communication, the effective citizen will question glittering generalities and strive to translate them into operational terms. By a "glittering generality" is meant a broad, sweeping statement which carries a connotation of favorable or unfavorable emotional response to some idea or institution. Some of these generalities have become important and useful guide lines to morality, patriotism, and good conduct. Grover Cleveland's statement that "a public office is a public trust" has become a popular American expression often used on behalf of honesty in politics.

In order to guard against the misleading effects of some generalities, however, it is desirable to attempt to put them into operational terms. Take the statement "The people should support the government rather than the government support the people." This line draws applause from sections of almost any audience. Try finding a concrete referent for the symbols used and attempt to put the statement into operational terms. That is, try to state what is done when such a point of view prevails. The fallacy of the generality consists of the unnatural separation of people and government, as though government were something apart from and above the people. Many would react favorably to the sentence as originally stated, but might not agree with the operational implications when the statement is analyzed.

The development of the ability to analyze symbols is a responsibility of the language-arts as well as the social-studies teacher. The language-arts teacher strives to develop in boys and girls the ability to state their meanings as accurately as possible. If this is done successfully, the same boys and girls will be impatient of glittering generalities. They will subject them to analysis, and they will reject those which do not make good sense when translated into operational terms. In the

social-studies class, the teacher and students can be alert to glittering generalities uttered by themselves and can put them on the blackboard to see what they mean. Furthermore, one of the important criteria which can be used to evaluate the general reliability of a statement is the extent to which such glittering generalities are used.

Similarly, the consumer of persuasion will strive to establish referents for large concepts and emotionally tinged phrases. Such large concepts as *democracy, justice, liberty,* and *equality* are a useful form of verbal shorthand. To avoid such terms would deprive people of concepts expressing high ideals and would render necessary a good deal of circumlocution. The consumer of persuasion, however, is obligated to examine the use of such symbols to determine what they mean in the various situations in which they are used. For example, American business is characterized as "a system of free enterprise." In order to find what *free enterprise* means, it is necessary to describe the nature of the economic activities to which it refers. Negative symbols, such as *reactionary, undemocratic,* or *un-American,* are used to turn public opinion against people, ideas, and actions. These, too, require the establishment of referents in order to determine the validity of their use.

Again it should be emphasized that emotional language is a powerful factor in adding interest and color and in creating great literature. Therefore, communication ought not to be reduced to dead-level, objective referents. However, clear referents need to be found for the emotional phrases or concepts before they are used in deciding on a course of action in a problem situation.

It is equally important to develop sensitivity to communication symbols in maps, charts, and graphs. These visual devices make attractive and interesting presentations of data. The consumer of data, however, needs to look sharply at the bases on which they are drawn up. The United States Office of Education has a color map showing illiteracy in the United States. The colors used are white, yellow, red, and black. The vast majority of the country is shown in black, and the reader may be left with the impression that gross illiteracy must characterize most of our nation. Actually, the statistical bases are as follows: counties with less than 1 per cent illiteracy are shown in white; counties between 1 per cent and 2 per cent illiteracy are shown in yellow; counties between 2 per cent and 4.3 per cent illiteracy are shown in red; counties over 4.3 per cent are shown in black. Thus, while a county shown in black may be anywhere between 4.3 per cent and 100 per cent illiterate, the distinction between a white one and a black one cannot be more than 4.3 per cent and might be as little as 3.3 per

cent. This map therefore gives an impression which is apt to be misleading.

4. *The effective democratic citizen checks on quotations, testimonials, and statistics which the authors of persuasion materials bring in from outside sources.*—This behavior involves judging first of all the adequacy and reliability of the source and, second, the accuracy with which the quotations or statistics have been reproduced. Often authorities are used on both sides of issues. This may occur in a court trial, a political campaign, or in the discussion of public issues. Whenever authorities are quoted, it is important to determine if possible whether they 'are qualified to speak with authority on that subject. The appeal to authority is used frequently by practically everyone. Teachers can encourage students to check up on their own statements and on one another's. Anyone quoting an authority on an issue should be expected to provide good reasons why he thinks that particular person has valid opinions to express. It is important on this, as on other behaviors, that the teacher encourage students to question their own statements freely and to make themselves participating members of the group. This sort of work calls for a give-and-take relationship between teacher and students. Otherwise, the students may properly resent the analytical techniques employed by their teacher.

The effective citizen, however, checks not only on the adequacy of authorities but also on the accuracy with which authorities have been quoted. If the reader decides that a person who has been quoted is a good authority on the problem under consideration and if he is willing to be influenced by this authority's opinion, it is desirable to check to see whether the quotation is accurate. This, of course, need be done only on a sampling of quotations of crucial significance in the formation of conclusions or courses of action. Obviously it is impossible to go around forever checking on quoted material, but it is important that quotations be accurate.

It is important also to make sample checks on statistical materials presented. Much statistical material is necessarily taken on faith. No one has time to check on the accuracy of statistics on all points. When the student is using data of particular significance, however, he does well to compare the statistics with those given from other sources or, if a source is indicated, to go back and see whether the materials have been accurately reproduced. High-school students should become familiar with sources of statistical material, such as *The Statistical Abstract of the United States,* the *World Almanac,* and such agencies as the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the United States Department of Labor. If students know about such agencies and compendiums, they

will be able to use them more easily and will draw on their help in checking the accuracy of vital information more frequently. Teachers can help students become alert to the possibilities of reference aids by using them when statistics become important in deciding an issue.

5. *The effective democratic citizen checks the logic and reasoning involved in the arguments of those who seek to persuade him.*—The student in his evaluation of data needs also to take into account the logical reasoning used in their presentation, to understand what is meant by the technique of "begging the question," and to be skeptical of arguments based on analogy. In developing this behavior, teachers may wish to use some of the Aristotelian rules of logic. If these can be introduced in relation to contemporary problems and settings, they may prove very useful. Some of the more recent mathematics courses, such as that developed by Harold P. Fawcett, stress the application of geometrical reasoning to a consideration of social problems.[6] The classroom teacher will find many interesting suggestions for discussions and projects on critical thinking in such books as Robert Thouless' *How to Think Straight,*[7] Edwin Leavitt Clarke's *The Art of Straight Thinking,*[8] and the *Thirteenth Yearbook* of the National Council for the Social Studies, *Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies.*[9]

6. *The effective democratic citizen draws his conclusions as to the adequacy of a body of data in terms of the total pattern, rather than in terms of specific techniques.*—It would be extremely unfortunate if students developed the habit of ruling out bodies of data solely because they discovered emotional words and evidence of other persuasion techniques. Of course, one tends to be skeptical of the value of a presentation in which there is evident falsehood or distortion. At the same time, it is necessary to realize that part of a body of evidence may be valid for certain purposes, while other parts may be invalid. The matter of purpose in using data becomes increasingly important. Most people felt that the motion pictures *Escape, The Mortal Storm,* and *So Ends Our Night* gave essentially true pictures of Nazism, even though in large part they were deliberate appeals to the emotions.

7. *The effective democratic citizen uses persuasion techniques to express his own thinking in a wholesome and effective manner.*—The study of persuasion techniques should be carried on not only for the purpose of analyzing and understanding the influences that shape one's own opinion and for the collection of accurate information to use in critical thinking, but also to discover more effective ways to persuade others of the rightness of one's own conclusions based on a careful study of public issues and problems. This is the essence of the democratic process. A citizen who has opinions based on his experience and reflec

tion has the responsibility of expressing his thinking to others. The study of persuasion materials and techniques by students in social-studies classes will help them to learn the proper and effective use of persuasion as citizens in a democratic society.

Check Lists for Evaluating Persuasion Materials

The behaviors discussed above have implications both for the producer and for the consumer of persuasion. They can help the producer safeguard his right and that of other groups to carry on persuasion in democratic society. They can help the consumer when he arrives at that stage in the reflective thinking process where he will want to evaluate the accuracy of material.

Persuasion is an important factor in carrying on the democratic process. In a totalitarian state, the right to persuade is a monopoly of the controlling group; in a democratic state, it is the right of all groups. Through the use of such persuasion techniques minorities seek to become majorities. This right to gain access to channels of public information is one of the most important liberties of a democratic society.

Each group which carries on persuasion, however, has a responsibility to society as a whole, and the following broad criteria might be employed by any group seeking to evaluate its own persuasive activity.

Do the techniques used permit the telling of the truth at all times? Or do those in charge of the persuasion sometimes use distortions and falsehoods?

Do the techniques used indicate a maximum respect for the intelligence of the group to whom they are addressed? Or do those in charge of the persuasion underestimate the people's intelligence and use crude, cheap appeals?

Are the techniques used such as will help the people develop greater power in reflective thinking? Or are they such as might eventually undermine and destroy the power and skill which the people already possess?

Do the techniques reveal a respect for the personalities of people on the other side of the issue? Or do those in charge of the persuasion indulge in name-calling and insult, thereby whipping up antagonisms which may result in bloodshed and violence at some later time?

If emotional symbols are employed, are they those that the members of the group sincerely believe in and are they consistent with the purposes of the group? Or do the persuasion technicians use these symbols with their tongues in their cheeks as a subversive group does when it wraps itself in the American flag?

The adherence of groups to such criteria as these is not to be achieved by restrictive legislation. The use of such legislation may eventually lead to the suppression of free expression itself. It is better that the American people develop consumer skills which will enable them to place more credence in groups which use such principles than in groups

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which violate them. Then the persuading groups will not only come to realize their social responsibility, but will also feel that the adherence to desirable principles produces more widespread acceptance of their ideas than does employment of falsehood, distortion, or bad logic. As in other areas, the best way to improve the product offered for consumption is to improve the discriminating appetite of the consumer.

The following check list is therefore presented as one which social-studies teachers may employ with students in judging the adequacy of the materials they use. The general headings may serve as guideposts for the student to use in the first examination of material. The detailed questions under each heading can serve as a basis for more intensive analysis when that is required. There is at the present time no way of setting up any quantitative weighting of these items so that a person may have an infallible guide to acceptance or rejection. Such a list of questions as these, however, should prove useful in arriving at a general reaction to a piece of material in terms of a common-sense balancing of all the factors involved. To the extent that the material reveals violations of such principles as those in this list, one would become increasingly skeptical of the point of view being presented. To the extent that the material revealed adherence to such principles, one would regard it as trustworthy and reliable.

A. Character of the group producing the material
  1. Under the auspices of what group, association, or organization is the material produced?
  2. Is the sponsorship of this group frankly and openly stated, or is it concealed or obscured?
  3. With what particular viewpoints, social, economic, or political, has this group been identified in the past?
  4. What are the probable purposes of the group in issuing this particular piece of material on this topic?
  5. Are these purposes frankly stated, are they left to be assumed by the reader, or are they concealed?
  6. Does this issuing group stand to benefit in terms of political, social, or economic advantage from the acceptance of its persuasive material?
  7. If the group does stand to benefit, does it state this frankly and directly? Or does it attempt to conceal its benefit under a cloak of operating in terms of the public interest?
  8. What is the general reputation of this group among well-informed people?
B. Character of the author of the material
  1. Who is the author of the material?
  2. What background of scholarship or direct experience does he offer from the standpoint of being a reliable writer on this topic?

3. To what extent does he reveal whether his writing (or other presentation) is based on first-hand scholarship, reading of secondary materials, or direct experience? Does he frankly admit his shortcomings or does he seek to gloss them over?

4. Does the author frankly state his own biases and prejudices? Does he indicate his connection with the sponsoring organization and its objectives?

5. Is the author one who is consistently identified with some particular social, political, or economic group or viewpoint? Or is he a writer who cannot be labeled or pigeonholed in some particular category?

6. Does the author frankly state his own purposes in this particular piece of persuasion?

7. What is the general reputation of this author among well-informed people?

8. Is the author known to be an employee of any organization or of the one sponsoring this publication?

C. General character of the material presented

1. Is the material based on first-hand experience and research or is it based on secondary reading of other people's sources?

2. Is the material allegedly purely a presentation of facts, or is there a considerable element of interpretation? If there is much interpretation, is this admitted or is it disguised under the statement that the facts speak for themselves?

3. Is it addressed to a particular kind of audience, such as a given socio-economic or religious group? If so, what kind? Is there a background of understanding assumed for this particular group which might not be available to members of other groups reading this material?

4. Does there seem to be an attempt to make the appeals in terms of given levels of intelligence or reading ability? If so, what cautions does the general reader need to observe in using the material?

5. If the material takes the form of a novel, poem, or story, does there seem to be an attempt to convince the reader that the situations are representative of actual conditions? Or is the material presented as though it were merely an imaginative tale, not to be taken seriously or applied in general?

D. Character of the language and communication symbols employed

1. Does the author employ emotional symbols identified with values which are accepted as worth while in American culture?

2. Does he give adequate referents when he uses large and popular concepts, such as *democracy, justice, freedom,* etc.?

3. Does he give operational definitions of his terms in situations where those would clarify the presentation?

4. Does he call the attention of the reader to the fact that he is occasionally using stereotypes and does he add proper cautions to the effect that these are not to be applied generally?

5. If he employs maps, graphs, or other pictorial presentation, does he make clear to the reader the limitations of the symbols and the possible dangers involved in misinterpretations?

6. If he employs glittering generalities, does he point out the limits of their applications or the assumptions which should be kept in mind in the interpretation of these?

7. Does he write as though he understood that the meaning of words is relative rather than absolute and subject to modification and growth instead of being fixed once and for all?

8. Do the quotations when checked reveal significant omissions that change their meaning and intent?

E. Character of the logic or argument used in the material

1. Does the author consistently follow rules of good logic in his presentation?

2. If he is guilty of such practices as begging the question, do they appear to be accidental or deliberate?

3. Does he call the attention of the reader to places where his logical argument may be faulty or open to question?

4. Are the examples he uses genuine instances of the thing he is trying to illustrate, or are they irrelevant distractions pulled in to confuse and complicate the issue?

5. If he uses statistics, does he point out the extent to which the figures given may be considered as representatives of a total situation? Or does he leave it up to the reader to guess?

6. If the author uses testimonials from others, does he indicate clearly the right of these authorities to be quoted on the issue involved?

7. If pictures (motion or still) are employed, does the author indicate the extent to which they are representative of a wide range of conditions? Or does he remain silent, leaving it up to the reader to infer that they probably are representative?

While the foregoing check list can be helpful in arriving at a judgment concerning the adequacy of a given piece of material, it should not be used to render judgments on the cause for which the material is produced. A group may have a good cause and yet use undesirable techniques of persuasion. If a consumer rejects a specific piece of material coming from a group, he should seek further information before he denounces the cause itself. If he finds the cause to be good and the group honest, he can work with the group to help improve the quality of the persuasion techniques employed.

Propaganda or Persuasion Analysis in the Social-Studies Curriculum

The development of the behaviors discussed in the preceding section should be a matter of concern to social-studies and general-education

teachers throughout the entire high-school program. There are, how-ever, several observations which might be made here concerning the desirability of stressing particular phases of them at various points in the curriculum.

The place to begin might be in the ninth grade, where the emphasis is ordinarily placed on community problems occurring in such func-tions of human living as health, recreation, maintaining community attractiveness, developing and conserving resources, transportation, and government. Of basic importance in this year's work would be an understanding of the various groups and interests involved in the solution of these problems and of the channels of communication they employ. Throughout the entire year, and more specifically in a unit on community agencies of communication, the teacher can help stu-dents develop an understanding of persuasion as a force in our culture. The newspaper, the radio, the motion picture, the school, the library, and the museum can all be considered as agencies of communication through which ideas are disseminated on a community-wide basis. Students can begin to develop simple criteria for reacting to motion pictures and radio programs. They can engage in a critical study of cartoons and comic strips in the newspapers they read.

At all grade levels teachers can help students understand the infor-mation and thought which necessarily lie back of the generalizations found in textbooks and other readings. The textbook has been so ex-alted in American education that boys and girls need to be made aware of the fact that it is written by human beings like themselves, people capable of making mistakes of fact and judgment. This practice in-cidentally should produce a more intelligent and functional use of textbooks.

If students take world history in the tenth grade, they can be helped to understand the historical growth of channels of communication and the effect these have had on the course of events. The invention of printing and the spread of books and libraries during the Renaissance and Reformation deserve much more than the casual mention they get in many world-history textbooks and courses of study. The dramatic revolution in communication wrought in our own century by motion pictures and radio should likewise be seen in the setting of historical continuity.

The world-history teacher has an opportunity to show students how a man's writing is influenced by his point of view. Selected passages from Macaulay's *History of England* could be used to illustrate the effect of that historian's Whig bias upon his interpretation and presentation of historical data. Contrasting pictures of medieval life might be drawn

from Walsh's *The Thirteenth: Greatest of Centuries* and John Adding-
ton Symonds' *Renaissance in Italy*. It is recognized that these books
are probably too difficult in their entirety for tenth-grade students;
the suggestion is that the teacher read or mimeograph selected key
passages in order to show that history also needs critical interpretation
by the reader.

The teacher of world history could do much to bring out the per-
suasion elements in art, music, and literature. The frankly propa-
gandistic pictures of such artists as Diego Rivera ought not to be ex-
cluded from the classroom, but should rather be given careful study.
The nationalistic music of the nineteenth century also deserves study
as a force in historical events. At this time one can make a study of
such symbols of a nation as music, flags, and heroes. The students can
be helped to realize that these symbols have frequently been used for
persuasion purposes. "The Marseillaise" and the tricolor of France
were powerful nineteenth-century symbols used in behalf of de-
mocracy and liberty everywhere in the world. Stress can be placed also
on the written literature of various nations and on the effect which a
writer like Sienkiewicz can have on the emotions of an entire gener-
ation of his countrymen. This study will help the student realize the
sources of many emotional symbols used in our time and to realize the
powerful effect of these on the destinies of peoples. In this way, much
can be done to prepare for the later direct teaching of the skills in-
volved in analyzing communication symbols.

The study of nationalism in world history can help the student de-
velop an increasing awareness of stereotypes. He can analyze the back-
ground and significance of such stereotypes as John Bull, Uncle Sam,
Marianne, the Russian Bear, and the Prussian Eagle. He can also think
through the conventional stereotypes of a Frenchman, an Englishman,
and a German; and his study of the cultures of these nations will lead
him to see the injustice and inaccuracies which result from the appli-
cation of such stereotypes to large groups of people.

The use of large concepts could also be considered in this world
history course. The student would see how courses of events were af-
fected by such phrases as "liberty, fraternity, and equality." The
teacher could help him understand the referents which were used for
those terms at the time of their origin and how the connotations may
have changed with the passing of time. Similar analysis can be made
of the growth and development of the term *democracy*.

Much of the work in world history can therefore be pointed toward
the attainment of an understanding of the use and misuse of per-
suasion materials. Similar suggestions might be made concerning the

third-year course in American history found in most high schools. First of all, a good course in American history will stress the rise of pressure groups and competing organizations in our culture. Conflicts of many kinds—regional, economic, and social—may be studied as characteristic of American life. Out of his study of these conflicts and the interest groups involved in them, the student can develop understandings of the significance and rôle of persuasion in American culture. He can study the origin and development of the press as a force in American opinion and see how the press has been supplemented by the radio and motion picture within the past generation. Many students can engage in special projects in this connection, using a book such as Lewis Jacob's *Rise of the American Film*.[10]

The work in American history can emphasize the emotional symbols which have appealed particularly to Americans. This ought not to be done in a spirit of cynicism or debunking. Students can bring in examples of persuasion using such symbols as the flag, George Washington, Abraham Lincoln, Valley Forge, the Spirit of '76, the Boys in Blue, and the log cabin. They can also collect American stereotypes, including such positive ones as the pioneer, the frontiersman, and the Forty-Niner and such negative ones as the politician, the carpetbagger, the hayseed, and the city slicker. These stereotypes are richly distributed throughout American literature, and their collection could be made one of the by-products of the study of American novels, poems, and short stories. Some of these stereotypes are used with particularly interesting effect in Robinson and Latouche's "Ballad for Americans."

American history is so rich in glittering generalities, both good and bad, that the student can become increasingly sensitive to their implications and their possibilities. He should be helped to discriminate between those which merely glitter and those which express some high, moral purpose in beautiful language. There is a difference between such a statement as "The people should support the government, not the government support the people" and ". . . that government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not perish from the earth." It is important again that students not develop cynicism, but rather learn to distinguish between trivial, stupid generalities and those which have proved their worth as powerful forces in American democracy. The practice of translating such generalities into their operational equivalents usually reveals which ones can and should be treated with respect.

In the twelfth year's work on problems of democracy or social problems, an extensive unit on public opinion would be extremely desirable. This would be the place to emphasize directly all the behaviors

listed above for effective citizenship. A twelfth-grade unit on the formation of public opinion might be initiated by a project involving the collection of samples of persuasion materials from a wide variety of sources. This activity would serve to dramatize the vast multitude of agencies involved in influencing opinion. Throughout the developmental stage of the unit, the students could be helped to see more sharply than ever before the fact that these agencies include good ones and bad, those with desirable social aims and those with undesirable social aims, those harmonious in spirit with the American tradition and climate of opinion and those not in sympathy with it. This activity would help students develop further in their understanding of the rôle of persuasion and further appreciate the wide variety of channels of communication through which such persuasive efforts move in our society.

The developmental stage of the unit could include a wide variety of activities. One of the essential ones would be the study of the measurement of public opinion. It would be desirable to take up the history and techniques of public-opinion polling and to show how the *Literary Digest* poll rose and fell and why such polls as the Gallup, the *Fortune*, and the Crossley continue to get good results. Such books as Gallup and Rae's *The Pulse of Democracy*[11] can be read by many high-school seniors and are useful not only for understanding the techniques of polling but also for getting an appreciation of the magnitude and significance of the total social problem involved. Students can recognize the danger that such polls may be used as bandwagon devices; they can raise questions concerning the relationship between results of polls and the actions of Congress and consider whether or not American democracy can function as a town meeting on a large scale.

A second developmental activity of considerable importance is that of becoming familiar with reference sources to be used in checking on statistics, quotations, and the like. Part of this project could consist of learning where these sources are, what kinds of information can be secured from them, and something about their degree of trustworthiness. It is true that students develop familiarity with such references throughout their high-school career and in many classes, but in this unit on opinion their study should be viewed in relation to the need for checking on information presented by others. Students can also become familiar with information agencies and can learn to use such government agencies as the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the Department of Labor and such private agencies as the Better Business Bureau.

A more thorough and penetrating study of stereotypes might be

made by some of the more advanced students, using such materials as Walter Lippmann's *Public Opinion*.[12] A collection could be made of cartoon stereotypes from American newspapers. The group of students studying this topic could be made responsible for a more general presentation of the topic to the entire class. The balopticon would be helpful here, since the committee could use it for projecting large images of cartoons and other pictures.

The nature of proof could be made the topic for study by another committee of the class. This committee might draw up a set of guide lines for logical thinking and reasoning and present these to the other students. Someone gifted in graphic presentation might draw up a set of charts to illustrate some of the Aristotelian rules of logic. Examples should be sought of the use, misuse, and abuse of these rules in discussing modern social problems. Such study, of course, should be begun and practiced earlier in the curriculum, but it should be given special emphasis in this unit.

Another committee could well make a study of those who have deliberately sought to manipulate public opinion through the application of psychological principles. The propaganda techniques listed in *Mein Kampf* would repay careful analysis in order to see how a really unscrupulous manipulator goes about his business. Also of importance would be Edmond Taylor's *Strategy of Terror*,[13] an analysis of public-opinion manipulation in terms of psychological conditioning, and Curt Riess' *Total Espionage*.[14] It would be desirable to include here not only the techniques used to form opinion but also those techniques used to incite panic, fear, and depression in an intended victim.

Still another committee might make an objective study and appraisal of the purposes, materials, and methods of the Institute for Propaganda Analysis. Such a study would lead to a committee report bringing out the strong and weak points of the work of the Institute and would bring to the attention of the class various publications which they might find of value and interest. It is at this point and probably only at this point that the seven "tricks of the trade" should be made available to the students. These "tricks," representing an attempt at classifying propaganda devices, are as follows: "name-calling," "bandwagon," "transfer," "card-stacking," "plain folks," "testimonial," "glittering generalities." If these devices are presented apart from the work of the Institute, students may get the idea that they represent an absolute and final statement of the techniques of persuasion. If they are presented in this setting, the student will see that they represent the thinking of one particular group and that they are a convenient and handy set of tools rather than a pronouncement of absolute truth from

an oracle. Students who are interested can read complete descriptions of these tricks and illustrations of their use in *The Fine Art of Propaganda*,[15] by the Institute for Propaganda Analysis.

The general semantics movement in its simpler phases might well be made a subject for study in this unit. Such books as Stuart Chase's *The Tyranny of Words*[16] and Thurman Arnold's *The Symbols of Government*[17] could be read by some of the students in the senior class in high school. The committee studying semantics would be charged with the responsibility of presenting to the class those principles and techniques useful in evaluating data and studying public opinion. Here it is that the class can consider the usefulness of techniques for detecting polar words, words used without referents, and the importance of operational definitions. Great care will need to be exercised by the teacher to keep these techniques from becoming ends in themselves or they may degenerate into intellectual gymnastics.

Some students might wish to make a critical examination of selected newspapers, news magazines, newsreels, and radio programs. This work might result in a manual on American newspapers in which perhaps a dozen to fifteen might be described in terms of their ownership, editorial policy, news policy, point of view, and clientele. Other students might wish to make biographical studies of individuals who play and have played an important part in American opinion, such as Henry Luce, Col. Robert McCormick, William Allen White, Marshall Field, George Creel, Edward K. Bok, and William Randolph Hearst.

Finally, students might study the use of persuasion techniques in carrying on campaigns for worthy causes and for social-civic improvement. The materials used in local and national drives of philanthropic organizations could be studied. Local campaign leaders, such as the director of the Community Chest, might describe to the class how public support is secured and ways that citizens can and do assist in such work.

There are a number of ways that a unit on public opinion may be culminated. One positive activity would be to carry on a school or community campaign for such purposes as greater cleanliness, beauty, traffic safety, and the like, using appropriate persuasion techniques; or, even better, students might assist in community campaigns already established. Another activity would be to make recommendations to improve the school newspaper, bulletin boards, and assemblies as agencies for forming and expressing school opinion. All students could write statements indicating how they planned to use the knowledge they had gained in their own reading, listening, observing, thinking, writing, and speaking.[18]

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THE MEANING AND SIGNIFICANCE OF EVALUATION

EVALUATION IS the process of gathering and interpreting evidence on the changes in the behavior of students as they progress through school. The term has often been used loosely; and a misunderstanding of its meaning has caused many teachers to question its function in the learning as well as in the teaching process. Because it has been confused with measurement and standardized tests, many people have tended to think of it as an end-point rather than as a means of appraising the growth which students make in all aspects of personality development or as a means of diagnosing the successes and difficulties which they encounter in that development. Others have identified evaluation with the measurement of teaching procedures, school plants, programs, and administrative devices according to some fixed standards or nationally established norms. Still others have brought condemnation upon the term by using *evaluation* to measure teachers' competence and as a basis for rating teaching. Much of the confusion which has resulted from these uses of the term would be avoided if evaluation were always defined as the process of appraising the changes in student behavior which take place as a result of the school's program and if the following characteristics were recognized as inherent in that process.

Meaning of Evaluation .

1. *Evaluation includes all the means of collecting evidence on student behavior.*—It is not limited to paper-and-pencil tests, valuable as these may be for gathering information on various aspects of the individual's development. Anecdotal records of student behavior in the classroom or on the playground may, however, be even more valuable as a technique for collecting data about certain aspects of the student's development. Written work, such as letters, themes, diaries, and poems, gives evidence not only of a student's ability to express himself clearly and effectively but often of his originality and creativeness, of his value patterns and social sensitivity, of his interests and his appre-

ciations. The books he reads, the movies he sees, the hobbies he pursues, the projects he selects, all give evidence of growth and development to the teacher who is aware of the importance of evaluation in the educative process and who seeks to know and understand the girls and boys in his classroom.

2. *Evaluation is more concerned with the growth which the student has made than with his status in the group or the status of the group, the school, or the program in relation to some national norm.*—Hence, evaluation stresses the importance of gathering evidence on the progress which the student makes in terms of his own aptitudes, interests, and goals rather than measuring his ability in comparison with that of his classmates. It may, however, be necessary to see the student in relation to his group in order to interpret the meaning of his success or failure. For example, a score of 70 per cent on liberalism in a test appraising a student's attitude toward race might seem to indicate a relatively high degree of tolerance. If, however, it were known that the median for the group was 75 per cent, the student's score would change in meaning, for it would be obvious that he was less liberal than 50 per cent of his classmates. Likewise, it may be necessary to see the group's score in relation to scores made by other adolescents in order to interpret it intelligently. A median of 75 per cent may indicate that the group as a whole is very tolerant according to this particular test or it may mean that the group is no more tolerant than most high-school students. While it is often necessary to make these comparisons in order to interpret evaluation data, the emphasis should always be on the growth or change which is taking place in the behavior of students as a result of their educational experiences.

3. *Evaluation is continuous; it is an integral part of all teaching and learning.*—It is not an end-point, something at the end of a unit, a semester, or a year's work. Nor is it a goal in itself, a test to be studied for, passed, and forgotten. Rather it is a continuous process, accompanying all teaching and learning in order that difficulties may be diagnosed and growth and development observed. Since evaluation emphasizes growth, it is just as important to collect evidence about a group and the attitudes, skills, and understandings of the individuals within the group at the beginning of a year's work or at the beginning of a unit as it is at the end. In fact, it is often more important to diagnose weaknesses and strengths before undertaking the study of a unit than it is to collect evidence at the end of the unit when it is too late to adjust content materials and teaching procedures in light of the inadequacies or strengths which the data reveal. If growth is to be continuous and if attention is to be focused upon objectives, it is

important also that continuous appraisal take place so that both students and teachers are constantly aware of the changes in behavior which are being made and of shortcomings and failures which need to be remedied. Continuous appraisal makes possible a cumulative history of the student's growth so that better guidance can be given him.

4. *Evaluation is descriptive as well as quantitative.*—The grade, the score, and the percentile ranking not only are frequently unimportant, but often are contrary to the purpose of an evaluation instrument, for a single score may conceal the evidence which the test was designed to give. A questionnaire, for example, which reveals the type of radio programs students enjoy, the movies they attend, the books and magazines they read, their leisure-time activities, would have little value if recorded as a score showing only the number of movies seen, books read, or radio programs heard. The value of such a questionnaire lies in the evidence which it gives of the interests, appreciations, and aesthetic values which students are developing and not in the numerical score. Furthermore, it is impossible to get a score or a grade from evaluation instruments made up of items for which there are no right or wrong answers. Tests which are designed to diagnose personality characteristics, such as the student's attitude in face-to-face relationships or on social issues, his appreciation of literature or music, his ability to recognize propaganda techniques, or his interest in the social studies, could not be scored in terms of what is correct or incorrect. A test which describes a student's attitude as liberal or conservative, democratic or undemocratic, tolerant or intolerant on social issues dealing with such topics as race, crime, unemployment, social security, militarism, and nationalism would be valuable to both the student and the teacher in helping the student develop consistent attitudes and a philosophy for living. It would not, however, be possible to assign a numerical or percentage score in terms of right or wrong, for few schools are willing to assume the responsibility of stating that the conservative or the liberal point of view is the correct one. Such a position would, of course, be undesirable in a school which accepts the democratic philosophy and operates within it and which encourages each student to draw his own conclusions and formulate his own value pattern.

5. *Evaluation is concerned with the total personality of the student and with gathering evidence on all aspects of personality development.* —Unlike the emphasis in the test-and-measurement movement given to achievement tests in subject-matter areas and to the measurement of intellectual ability, evaluation is concerned with all phases of growth and development. It seeks to gather as much objective and valid

evidence as possible regarding the ability of boys and girls to make satisfactory social adjustment in face-to-face situations; their ability to think critically, to coöperate, to be self-directing and self-disciplined; the value patterns which they are developing; their interests, their physical fitness, their work habits and study skills, their reading ability, and their ability to express themselves orally and in writing. Growth in knowledge and in intellectual achievement is likewise evaluated as one aspect of personality development, and a very important one, but it is not stressed at the expense of the other phases of growth. Well-balanced and comprehensive evaluation programs aim to give attention to all objectives in a degree equal to their importance and to give recognition to physical, social, and emotional development as well as to intellectual growth.

6. *Evaluation is a coöperative process involving students, teachers, and parents.*—If learning is to be purposive, students need from time to time to appraise their own progress and to take stock of their own shortcomings and failures, their attainments and successes in terms of the objectives they hope to achieve. Continuous self-evaluation serves a dual purpose: it reëmphasizes the objectives which the students set out to achieve and focuses learning activities on these objectives; and, second, it motivates learning by pointing out deficiencies which need to be overcome.

Greater growth also takes place when all those concerned with the progress of the student—the parents, the teaching staff, and the child himself—coöperate in formulating the objectives, work together to achieve them, and coöperate in the gathering and interpreting of evaluation data. The participation of students in the collection and interpretation of evidence of their own progress also makes possible the evaluation of many more behaviors than would be possible if teachers alone were responsible for all evaluation procedures. Parents, too, can supply evidence on change in behavior which would be impossible for the teachers to collect. Thus, by utilizing the coöperative effort of all those interested in the student, it is possible to have a more comprehensive and better balanced evaluation program than would otherwise be possible.

Since the primary purpose of the evaluation program is to gather evidence of all kinds on changes in the total personality of the student which take place as a result of the school's program, all types of techniques for gathering data should be used. Standardized tests alone will not suffice; descriptive evidence is also needed if as complete a picture as possible of the student and his development is to be obtained.

Importance of Evaluation

The rôle of evaluation in the educative process is both directive and diagnostic. It affects both the methods used in the classroom and the curriculum content. It is useful also in diagnosing the successes and difficulties which students encounter throughout their school experience and in appraising the effectiveness of the school's program. In addition, it provides a basis for reporting growth to parents and for informing the public about the school's achievements.

1. *Evaluation affects curriculum content and emphasis.*—The types of tests which a school gives and the use to which they are put indicate rather clearly what is taught, and, to some extent, how it is taught. Because standardized tests have been used so widely and because they have been concerned primarily with factual information and skills, both teachers and students have come to think of information and the ability to perform certain skills as the sole end of education. The influence which examinations have on determining curriculum content and emphasis in teaching is pointed out by the report of the Regents' Inquiry into the character and cost of public education in the state of New York. In commenting on the Regents' Examinations, Dr. Francis T. Spaulding, who had charge of the Inquiry studies in secondary education, writes:

> . . . It is evident that the present examination system is largely responsible for the kind of educational equipment with which boys and girls now leave the secondary schools. What the schools teach, the way in which they teach it, and the extent to which they concern themselves with individual boys and girls are definitely resultants of the examination requirements. The curriculum in the majority of the schools faithfully reflects the content of the examinations. If the curriculum does not prepare boys and girls to meet the problems which they must face outside the school, the fault lies partly in the fact that examinations in most classrooms are those which will train boys and girls in the abilities which the examinations demand. If the methods consist largely of drill on memorized facts and skills, and if they provide little attention to pupils' individual abilities and needs beyond the coaching of pupils who are slow to learn, it is because individual pupils can be successfully "crammed" without attention to their particular needs or desires.[1]

As long as factual tests and examinations are the chief basis for marks and grades in the majority of schools throughout the United States, as long as a student's success or failure is determined largely by his ability to recall facts, teachers will continue to place their major emphasis on memoriter learning. Likewise, students will continue to regard the memorization of facts as the all-important outcome of their educational experiences.

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The acceptance of the implications of this practice would make teaching a most discouraging occupation. If the sole objective of instruction were "the acquisition of facts and skills" on the part of students, education in America would have to be pronounced a failure, for objective evidence proves that few of the facts which boys and girls learn are retained after they leave the classroom. If factual information about civics and American history, for example, were the only criterion for civic competence, then, according to the Regents' Report, ninth-grade students would be better trained for active citizenship than tenth-grade students. If the same rate of forgetting continues to operate throughout life, it might be assumed that twelfth-grade students, because of their recent study of American history, are more competent than adults.[2] Similarly, the Pennsylvania Study points out that

instead of building up in the student through progressive study and reflection a well-knit body of knowledge worth keeping alive and then expecting the pupil to grow in his power to apply and interpret it, the school invites him to deposit isolated layers of information many of which must chiefly appeal to him as valuable in order to "pass" the course.

This "education by forgetting," as the Study calls it, reaches its peak in the social studies, where information acquired in one course is not a prerequisite for mastery in a second course.[3]

Fortunately, the memorization of isolated facts is not, and never has been, the only objective of education even though the type of examinations and marks used in many schools would point to this conclusion. More emphasis in evaluation programs on other desired outcomes of social education and less emphasis on isolated facts are needed if students are to be convinced that teachers are really concerned with more than the acquisition of information and if all aspects of their development are to receive adequate attention. Furthermore, since recent studies point out that the more permanent values of learning are the social attitudes which students develop; the ability with which they handle books, library facilities, and laboratory equipment; the skill with which they interpret data, analyze issues, draw generalizations, and master the techniques and tools of communications, then certainly these objectives merit as much attention and as careful appraisal as teachers give to the instruction and measurement of factual information.

2. *Evaluation is helpful in diagnosing students' needs.*—As educational philosophy has shifted and as schools attempt to build their curriculums to meet the needs of boys and girls, the evaluation program becomes even more an integral part of the educational process.

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Certainly if the curriculum is to meet the personal and social needs of the individual student and provide experiences for his growth and development according to his particular aptitudes and interests, it is necessary to diagnose carefully the needs, aptitudes, and interests of each student and to evaluate his progress systematically and objectively. This must be done in order that teachers may guide students intelligently and may provide educational experiences to meet their needs.

Too often tests are given for the sole purpose of grading students, and no attempt is made to see what difficulties the student has had in mastering the information tested. For the teacher concerned about individual development this is not enough. Rather he wants the evaluation instrument he uses to be diagnostic enough to tell him what the difficulties, needs, and problems of the student are. Take, for example, the objective "to use library facilities efficiently and intelligently." An analysis of this objective reveals that some of the things which high-school students need to know are: how to use the card catalogue, the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature,* and standard reference books such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, the *World Almanac,* and atlases; and how to discriminate between reference books which are adequate and authentic and those which are unreliable and inadequate. The purpose in using an evaluation instrument constructed to appraise the student's ability to use library facilities is not so much the grade from the test as it is the information which such an instrument gives about the particular difficulties which the student is having so that he may be helped in overcoming those difficulties. A single grade or score tends to conceal these problems and would therefore be of little value to the teacher in developing a program to meet the needs of his students.

3. *Evaluation often produces a modification in the school's program.* —Conclusions as to the success of the school's program must rest on the degree to which student behavior has been modified or changed in the direction of the school's objectives. Conclusions based on the subjective judgment of teachers and administrators, however, cannot be relied on without supporting evidence. Nor are conclusions valid which are based on informal and casual observation, on the collegiate success of a few outstanding graduates, or on a testing program which emphasizes only one or two objectives. Teachers, for example, long took it for granted that social attitudes, interests, and appreciations were being developed as by-products of the school's program. Not until efforts were made to appraise systematically and objectively the effect of the school's program in changing these behaviors was it learned that or-

dinary classroom teaching has little effect in changing social attitudes or in developing appreciations. In fact, quite often the effect of the school's program is just the opposite of that intended. Too frequently, detailed analysis of the plays of Shakespeare or of the poetry of Tennyson has resulted in dislike for drama and poetry rather than literary appreciation; study of factual history and civics has caused a distaste for history and disinterest in community and national problems; and factual information about the Constitution has not been accompanied by increased appreciation of democratic values and concern for civil liberties. Yet the schools have long operated on the assumption that the more one knows about a subject, the greater is his appreciation and liking for it. There is considerable research evidence to show that attitudes can be changed and appreciations developed, but these result from carefully planned activities and discussions.[4]

Only through careful appraisal can the school secure the valid and reliable information it needs on the effectiveness of its program in achieving desired outcomes. In the light of the evidence collected through an evaluation program, curriculum modification and revision can then be made so that the objectives may be more completely realized. That the evaluation program of the school must be comprehensive and well-balanced has already been pointed out, because what is stressed in the evaluation program will be stressed in the classroom and what is neglected in the evaluation program is likely to be left to chance or disregarded entirely.

A comprehensive evaluation program is one of the most effective ways of bringing about changes or modifications in classroom procedures which will provide greater opportunity for boys and girls to develop desired characteristics of behavior. Where teachers are faced with the necessity of gathering evidence in terms of their objectives, they often realize the difficulty or even impossibility of getting such evidence with the techniques being used in their classrooms. Revision thus becomes essential so that situations will exist not only in which student behavior may be observed and appraised but in which young people may actually have an opportunity to develop the desired personality characteristics. Obviously boys and girls cannot be expected to learn to work together if no opportunities are provided for group or committee work. The development of the behaviors implied in self-direction necessitates opportunities for students to plan and carry out activities, do independent research work, and initiate projects. Attempts to evaluate student behavior in these objectives may thus cause teachers to make curriculum revisions.

4. *Evaluation helps to clarify objectives.*—When evaluation is casual and informal or where the testing program focuses solely on information and skills, the school's objectives are likely to remain fragmentary. When, however, the school decides to gather evidence on all aspects of student development, such objectives as coöperation, tolerance, critical thinking, and social sensitivity have to be operationally defined so that teachers know what behaviors are involved and whether children are making any progress in developing them. The objective "social and civic competence," for example, is not very meaningful unless it is quite clearly stated what one does when he is a competent citizen in a democracy. No clear and adequate appraisal of a child's growth toward this objective can be made until it has been analyzed into specific behaviors so that teachers know exactly what they are evaluating. Certainly it would be more meaningful to both students and teacher if they agreed that a "competent citizen" is one who is interested in and concerned about significant social, political, and economic problems; who analyzes and evaluates all available evidence pertinent to an understanding of a problem before reaching a decision; and who, having drawn a conclusion, acts on it within the limits of his ability and opportunity. They might also agree that a "competent citizen" is concerned about the welfare of others, acts with consideration for others, assumes responsibility for his share of group activity, uses his talents for social good, and does not speak or act disparagingly toward other races, religions, political parties, or classes. Having defined clearly the behaviors involved, both the students and the teacher would have a basis for evaluating the progress made in achieving this objective.

5. *Evaluation provides an adequate and objective basis for recording and reporting student progress.*—The primary purpose of evaluation is to provide an adequate picture of the student and his present status, so that by comparison with previous data, growth can be indicated and needs diagnosed. This necessitates the keeping of cumulative records on all phases of development in order that case histories can be made and the unique pattern of behavior for each boy and girl observed and diagnosed. Such records should be based on as objective and reliable evidence as possible and not on the subjective judgment of teachers. Likewise, reports to parents on the progress which students are making in school must be in terms of the school objectives and must be based on as valid and reliable evidence as the school can gather. Parents may resent a report that their child is poorly adjusted or malnourished when the report reflects only the subjective judgment of the teacher. When objective evidence on physical, emotional, and

social as well as intellectual growth and needs is presented, parent coöperation is more likely to follow.

Parental concern over a child's spelling marks and unconcern over his grade in "citizenship" have been due to the fact that spelling was something tangible which the parent understood while citizenship was not. A low mark was proof that the child had not learned to spell, and the parent accepted it as a valid report. "Citizenship," however, was less understandable, and a low mark might be rationalized on the ground that the teacher did not like the child or did not understand him. "Citizenship" in all probability meant something quite different to the parent from what the teacher had in mind when he recorded the grade. Teacher judgment, therefore, might or might not be accepted. Surely teachers need to have as objective evidence for reporting a student's difficulties and achievement in citizenship as for reporting his failures and successes in arithmetic and spelling, and parents and students need to know what behaviors are being evaluated when a progress report in citizenship is made.

6. *Evaluation gains community support by informing the public of the effectiveness of the school's program.*—Much public criticism of the school and of new practices and techniques would be alleviated, if not completely ended, if the public understood what the school was doing, what its objectives were, and how well it was achieving the desired outcomes. An evaluation program which can present objective and reliable evidence of the growth which students are making in the objectives which both the school and the public consider desirable, is the most satisfactory way of answering critics and winning public support and approval. Criticism and dissatisfaction with what the school is doing usually come from a misunderstanding of the school's program and of the reasons for making innovations. Schools which attempt curriculum revision are obligated to keep the public informed of these changes and of the purpose for making them. Thus an evaluation program, by informing the public of the effectiveness of the school's work, can both answer critics and gain community backing.

Procedure for Developing an Evaluation Program

When the faculty of a school sets out to develop an evaluation program which embodies the above characteristics, they must:

First, formulate the school's objectives in behavioral terms.
Second, locate situations in which the desired behavior can be observed.
Third, collect evidence of student behavior and record it in usable form.
Fourth, interpret and use the evidence.
Fifth, report results to students, parents, and other interested persons.

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1. *Formulation of the school's objectives.*—Since the purpose of evaluation is to gather data on the changes in student behavior in terms of the school's objectives, it is obvious that the first step in any evaluation program must be the stating of the school's objectives in operational terms so that the behavior is clearly defined and appraisal is therefore possible. This, it has already been observed, can best be done by the coöperation of the entire teaching group, for a joint consideration of the school's aims points out to the participating teachers the values important to the "development of the whole personality," and it provides greater assurance that all significant aspects of the student's development will be covered by the evaluation program.[5]

Group objectives, stated as changes in pupil behavior which the program of the school aims to develop, may prove long and unwieldy. Some classification is therefore necessary in order to see that all important phases of the individual's development have been considered and in order that appraisal may be done in as economical and meaningful a way as possible. A grouping of objectives so that those which deal with similar kinds of behavior are classified together may suggest a way of appraising several behaviors with one instrument, as, for example, the library test which was discussed earlier. One teacher may state that he wants his students to develop an interest in reading newspapers and current periodicals, another that he hopes boys and girls will possess a love for poetry or a desire to draw. A physical-education teacher may be concerned that students have an interest in outdoor sports. How well the school is helping boys and girls develop these interests might be evaluated with one instrument more effectively than if each teacher attempted to appraise objectives separately.

2. *Situations for observing behavior.*—The classroom, the library, the auditorium, the cafeteria, the school ground, the athletic field, the laboratory, and the corridors all provide normal situations for observing student behaviors. Some classroom situations, however, provide little opportunity for students to develop behaviors considered important by the teaching staff. Experiences must be provided in which children have an opportunity to use reference books, to judge sources of information, to work together, to assume the rôle of leader, to plan and budget their time, if evidence is to be gathered on their growth in initiative and self-direction. An authoritarian classroom atmosphere where decisions are made for students and where coöperation often means doing what the teacher says, does not permit either the development of self-discipline, coöperation, and self-direction or the gathering of data on those behaviors. Conscious planning should be done and activities provided within the framework of the regular classroom so

that most of the behaviors considered important by teachers and students can be developed and observed there.

Sometimes, however, a controlled situation is a more economical and practical means of gathering data. Some behaviors are rarely, if ever, observed in a normal classroom or school situation. Observational techniques are often inadequate and impractical. Specially planned or controlled situations, therefore, may need to be devised. Test situations of a paper-and-pencil type are of this kind. Non-pencil-and-paper tests in which the conditions are regulated are also planned situations. Interviews and controlled observations are other techniques which call for specially planned situations.

School parties, excursions, field trips, going to and from school, public functions, and the home—all provide situations for observing student behavior. Moreover, gathering evidence in these situations requires adherence to the principle that evaluation is a coöperative process involving students and parents as well as teachers.

3. *Collection and recording of evidence.*—It would be impossible for each teacher in the school to attempt to collect evidence on all the objectives which the school considers important. Some objectives may be of equal importance to all teachers, as, for example, critical thinking. In that case each teacher should consider carefully how his course or the particular unit which he is teaching contributes to that general objective and on what aspects of critical thinking he can gather evidence of the student's progress. The mathematics teacher may be particularly concerned with the student's ability to recognize logical principles and fallacies in reasoning; the science teacher, with the ability to apply scientific principles; the social-studies teacher, with the ability to distinguish between facts and assumptions and to apply principles of social significance in new situations; and all the teachers may be concerned with gathering evidence on how well the student can interpret data and draw sound generalizations. All these behaviors are aspects of critical thinking and need to be evaluated.

Some objectives, on the other hand, are the primary concern of a particular teacher; e.g., development of the ability to do quantitative thinking is usually an objective of a mathematics teacher, and the ability to perceive and identify problems and conflicts in social life is a concern of the social-studies teacher. In fact, a course, a unit, or a particular activity may be specially designed to produce a change in pupil behavior not adequately provided for in any other part of the curriculum. The teacher interested in a specific objective naturally assumes the responsibility for gathering evidence of growth in that characteristic. This obviously necessitates the staff's thinking through

and determining together which objectives are common to the whole school and hence part of the general evaluation program, and which ones are to be emphasized in some special class or in connection with some specific activity.

In collecting evidence, it is necessary to select the best technique to use in terms of the behavior which is to be evaluated. Some behaviors lend themselves to appraisal by paper-and-pencil techniques, others to more informal methods; and some can be appraised in several ways. It is often practical for schools to use tests which have been developed by test technicians, if tests can be found which appraise the objectives which the school considers important and therefore worth appraising. For those objectives for which no tests can be found or for which informal techniques have not been developed, schools will need to develop instruments of their own. Often techniques can be adapted to a school situation although the content of a test does not fit the new program. In building any comprehensive evaluation program, schools need to decide judiciously how they can obtain, in the most usable form, valid and objective evidence about the changes which are taking place in their students.

When faculty members have agreed on the objectives to be emphasized by the whole school and on the best evaluation techniques to use, then they need to decide where the evidence is to be collected and when. If tests are to be used, the timing is important so that the program will be continuous and well balanced. It is unwise to give too many tests during one semester, for students will become test-weary and the program will fall of its own weight. Nor should the social-studies or general-education teacher be expected to give all the tests in his classroom or to gather all the data on the general school objectives. When the social-studies teacher is also the core or general-education teacher and is the teacher-counselor, he has the responsibility of gathering most of the information about the students in his group and of disseminating it among the teachers concerned. But it is advantageous to have as many teachers as possible participate in gathering the evidence and using the data. The evaluation program in the senior high school at Eugene, Oregon, provides for some tests to be given during each semester and for other techniques to be used continuously (see Table 41). This program is, of course, supplemented by teacher-made tests and by continuous evaluation in the classrooms. Likewise, the evaluation programs of the Baker Junior High School and West Senior High School in Denver, Colorado, show not only how tests may be staggered but how two schools can coöperate in gathering data on a group of students over a six-year period (see Table 42).

TABLE 41
PROGRAM OF EVALUATION
EUGENE HIGH SCHOOL, 1942-1943
EUGENE, OREGON

Objectives	GRADE X		GRADE XI		GRADE XII	
	First Semester	Second Semester	First Semester	Second Semester	First Semester	Second Semester
1. Displays understanding of the subject	Cooperative General Achievement Test, Natural Science, Form F	Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test (Form 1943) Cooperative Gen. Achievement Test I. Soc. Studies Form T	Stenographic Aptitude Test Minn. Test for Clerical Workers	Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test (Form 1943) Cooperative American History Form S	Cooperative Gen. Achievement Test, Soc. Studies, Form T Stenographic Aptitude Test Minn. Test for Clerical Wkrs.	Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test (Form 1943)
2. Expresses himself clearly in written form	Progressive Language Tests (Advanced)		Cooperative English Test A: Mechanics of Expression		Cooperative English Test A: Mechanics of Expression	
3. Expresses himself clearly in oral form	Observation	Observation	Observation	Observation	Observation	Observation
4. Reads widely and understandingly	Reading Records Progressive Reading Test	Reading Records	Reading Rec. Questionnaire on Voluntary Reading, P.E.A. 3.31	Reading Records— Cooperative Eng. Test, Read. Comprehension. Form S	Reading Records	Reading Records— Cooperative Test, Read. Comprehensive Form S

					Cooperative Gen. Achievement—II Mathematics, Form T	
5. Uses basic mathematics skills	Progressive Mathematics Test				Cooperative Gen. Achievement—II Mathematics, Form T	Social Problems, P.E.A. 1.42
6. Does clear thinking		Interpretation of Data, P.E.A. 2.51		Social Problems, P.E.A. 1.41	Interpretation of Data P.E.A. 2.52	Observation
7. Displays self-reliance	School Attitudes Survey. Part I, Form A. Observation S.S.E.I Library Test	School Attitudes Survey Part I, Form B Observation	Observation S.S.E.I Library Test	Observation	Observation S.S.E.I. Library Test	
8. Makes desirable personal adjustments	Personal Questionnaire Sch. Att. Survey, Part III, Form A, Anecdotal Records	Interest Index P.E.A. 8.2a Sch. Att. Sur. Part II, Fm. B Anecdotal Records	Anecdotal Records	Anecdotal Records	Interest Index, P.E.A. 8.2a Anecdotal Records	Anecdotal Records
9. Coöperates with others	School Attitudes Survey Part III, Form A Anecdotal Records	School Attitudes Survey Part III, Form B Anecdotal Records	Anecdotal Records	Anecdotal Records	Anecdotal Records	Anecdotal Records
10. Shows concern for the welfare of the group	School Attitudes Survey Part IV, Form A Anecdotal Records	School Attitudes Survey Part IV, Form B Anecdotal Records	Anecdotal Records	Anecdotal Records	Scale of Beliefs, P.E.A. 4.21 Anecdotal Records	Scale of Beliefs, P.E.A. 4.31 Anecdotal Records
11. Displays creative ability	Observation	Observation	Observation	Observation	Observation	Observation
12. Practices good physical and mental health habits	Physical Examination Observation	Observation	Observation	Observation	Observation	Observation
13. Attends regularly and punctually all school duties	Daily Attendance Records	Daily Attendance Records	Daily Attendance Records	Daily Attendance Records	Daily Attendance Records	Daily Attendance Records

EVALUATION PROGRAM, 1942-43
BAKER JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND WEST HIGH SCHOOL
DENVER, COLORADO

Objective	VII B	VII A	VIII B	VIII A	IX B	IX A	X B	X A	XI B	XI A
Attitude	Baker's School Attitude Test	Scale of Beliefs 4.4 and 4.5	Baker's School Attitude Test	Scale of beliefs 4.4 and 4.5			School Attitude P.E.A. 4.6	Scale of Beliefs 4.21–4.31 P.E.A.		School Attitude P.E.A. 4.6
Reflective Thinking		Interpretation of Data (2.71) P.E.A.	Word Study Skills Iowa—Test B	Interpretation of Data (2.71) P.E.A.					Social Problems 1.41 (P.E.A.)	Interpretation of Data 2.51 P.E.A.
Interest	Interest Index—Adapted S.S.E.I. Auto-biography Reading Records Anecdotal Records	Reading Records Anecdotal Records	Reading Records Anecdotal Records	Reading Records Anecdotal Records			Interest Index 8.2a P.E.A.			General Education Questionnaire
Work Habits and Study Skills	Progressive Achievement Reading (Elem.)* Progressive Arithmetic (Elem.)* Denver Library Test		Language—Progressive or Iowa	Progressive—Reading (Intermediate) Progressive—Arithmetic (Intermediate)	Traxler Reading Form 3	Progressive Mathematics (Advanced)	Library Test (Denver) Cooperative English Test	Progressive Mathematics (Advanced)		12th-Grade Library Test (Denver)

Otis Intelligence Test given in VII B if not given in sixth grade.

Collecting evidence on student growth implies, of course, the care-ful recording of such evidence. Cumulative records kept on the student's progress through school reveal the growth pattern of the individual so that better guidance and counseling can be given him and so that learning experiences can be provided to meet his needs and difficulties. It follows that if such records are to be the basis for direct-ing curriculum and classroom activities, the cumulative record must be accessible to all teachers at all times. If teachers are to plan learning experiences to meet the individual needs of the students in their classes, they ought to have in their possession all the information about the students that they can possibly obtain.

4. *Interpretation and use of evaluation data.*—An evaluation pro-gram has little value unless thoughtful interpretations are made from the data collected and unless such interpretations are used for in-dividual guidance and curriculum revision. The interpretation of evaluation evidence implies the translation of test scores into meaning-ful descriptions of the student's behavior, his successes in one area as seen against his difficulties and failures in another. Hypotheses drawn from one test may be substantiated or changed in the light of evidence drawn from other sources. Thus the evidence drawn from one source needs to be considered in relation to all the data, for a clear and accurate picture of a student's personality is obtained only when all the data are considered together.

An understanding of the interrelatedness of evaluation data is im-portant in making any interpretation of an individual's difficulties. Although an analysis of the objectives of the school into specific be-haviors is necessary before evidence can be gathered on the growth which students make in those behaviors, all learning is interrelated and growth in one behavior does not take place without affecting the total behavioral pattern. Evidence gathered by one evaluation tech-nique or instrument must, therefore, be examined in relation to other evidence before the data can be completely understood.

Although evaluation data do not in themselves show causes for the successes and failures which they reveal, fruitful hypotheses can be formulated as to the causes so that remedial action can be taken. When these hypotheses have been checked against all available evi-dence, they form the basis for individual and group guidance and for curriculum revision.

5. *Reports to parents and students.*—The fifth and final step in evaluation is the report of student progress which is made to the stu-dent, to his parents, and to other interested persons. To be consistent with the whole concept of evaluation, the report should (*a*) be made

in terms of the progress which the student, according to his own ability, has made in the school's objectives; (*b*) point out his strengths and weaknesses; and (*c*) make suggestions and recommendations for parents and school coöperation in meeting his needs.

Just as a single grade on a test often conceals the purpose for which the test was designed, so a single grade for a subject is of little value in reporting to parents the particular difficulties and successes which the child has encountered. What does a grade of *B*, for example, mean? Is it a measure of the student's scholastic achievements in comparison with the other members of his class or in comparison with his own aptitudes and purposes? Does it take into account his attitudes, his social adjustment, his ability to think scientifically, his work habits and study skills, or is it based only upon the facts which he has learned? Has the child achieved a *B* grade in all the objectives which the school holds desirable or how was this grade of *B* determined? A composite mark of *B* is of little value in informing either parents or students regarding specific behaviors. A progress report which gives information on each of the behaviors in which the school is concerned is consequently highly desirable.

Both the use of evaluation data in the educative process and the methods by which the student's progress can be reported in meaningful terms need more complete discussion than is possible in this brief analysis of the procedures by which an evaluation program may be set up in a school. Further discussion of these points is therefore to be found in Chapter 15.

Conclusion

An evaluation program is, thus, an important part of a school's program because it focuses education upon the objectives, causes the school to clarify them and to modify its curriculum and classroom procedures so that they may be achieved; it helps in the identification of student needs; it provides an adequate and objective basis for reporting student progress in many aspects of personality development as well as in academic achievement; and it secures for the school more intelligent coöperation from parents and the community by giving parents convincing evidence of the effectiveness of the school's program.

In setting up a comprehensive program of evaluation, schools need to analyze their objectives to see what behaviors are involved and to find out what tests and techniques are currently available for gathering evidence on how well their objectives are being attained. It may not be possible for a school inaugurating an evaluation program to appraise all objectives at the beginning of the program. Because such an extensive program at first may not be feasible or even expedient,

schools nevertheless are not relieved from the obligation of starting a program which will ultimately provide valid and objective evidence on pupil growth in all the objectives which the school holds to be desirable.

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EVALUATION TECHNIQUES

By DEFINITION, *evaluation* includes all the means of collecting evidence on student behavior. Some techniques, however, are more useful and satisfactory than others. In selecting a technique to use, a teacher or administrator needs to know what the behavior is on which he is gathering evidence and to keep that behavior or objective definitely in mind as he collects and records the evidence. Too often teachers confuse the behaviors they evaluate and not only attempt to use one evaluation instrument to gather data on several behaviors, but try to get from it a grade or score without having any clear idea what it is they are evaluating or what the grade represents. A student's attitudes should not be confused with his information or knowledge about a topic, his creativeness with his ability to spell or punctuate, his interest in a subject with his ability, or his knowledge with his interest. While it is true that one evaluation instrument may often be used to gather data on more than one behavior, teachers should know what those behaviors are so that each may be appraised separately and the evidence recorded in the most meaningful way possible. A general achievement test which yields only one score will conceal the fact that the child's achievement may not be the same in all objectives and that his pattern of growth in some behaviors may show considerable deviation from his general level of achievement.

Principles to Use in Selecting Evaluation Techniques

In determining which of several techniques to use in evaluating student behavior, a teacher should make his decision on the basis of the following principles.

1. *It should yield as objective evidence as possible.*

Subjective judgments are likely to be biased and intuitive. Although all techniques are subjective to the extent that the teacher selects the situation in which the student reveals his value pattern, competence, or understanding and to the extent that the teacher determines which

behaviors are worth recording and which are not—still the evidence gathered, whether it be quantitative or descriptive, should be as objective as it is possible to obtain. *Objectivity* usually refers to the degree to which two or more persons are able to judge behavior and arrive at the same conclusions. Thus, an objective test is one which can be scored from a key so that if it is scored twice by the same person or by different persons the results will be the same; an objective anecdotal record is one which records accurately what happened but does not interpret it. Two or more persons should be able to read an anecdotal record and know exactly what happened; they may, however, interpret it differently. Objectivity is important, for it assures the student a fairer appraisal than might otherwise result and it permits coöperative evaluation on the part of several members of the staff.

2. *It should provide valid evidence.*

Validity refers to the degree to which a test or a technique measures accurately the behavior which it is intended to measure. It is probably the most important criterion against which to measure an evaluation technique. A test or other technique is valid with a particular group in measuring accomplishment or growth only to the degree that it measures the behavior expected for that particular group. Language difficulty in a test group may invalidate a test designed to appraise thinking; lack of information, one constructed to measure social attitudes. Thus, a test or technique may be valid for one group and, therefore, serve its purpose well but be invalid and unsuitable to use with another group; it may be valid for measuring growth in one objective but invalid if used for any other purpose.

The validity of an instrument such as a test, a questionnaire, or a check list depends on the validity of the items which compose it. The more discriminating the items are, the more valid the instrument. Items which are ambiguous, which are too easy or too difficult for a particular group, which combine more than one behavior, such as information and attitude, lower the validity of a test. To be valid, the instrument used to measure growth should be based on the materials and activities of a particular course.

3. *It should provide reliable evidence.*

Reliability refers to the degree of confidence which one can place in the evidence from an evaluation instrument. A test is said to be reliable if it measures consistently that which it is supposed to measure. Reliability thus depends on the degree with which an instrument yields the same results when repeated under similar conditions. It is dependent on keeping at a minimum those factors which tend to raise or lower a student's score at a particular time. It is thus a function

of objectivity. Reliability is also a function of the length of a test; the longer the test, the higher the reliability and the greater the opportunity for adequately sampling the student's knowledge, abilities, or values. Faulty administrative procedure may also affect the reliability of the evidence if the circumstances under which the data are collected are not conducive to the best effort of the individual.

4. *It should require a minimum of student and teacher time for administration and scoring.*

Evaluation may be allowed to consume so much time that students become test-weary. Tests or questionnaires which are so long or so complicated as to cause physical and mental exhaustion are less valuable than shorter and less complicated ones, provided the shortened form is reliable. Also, the directions for using an evaluation instrument should be simple and direct so that the student knows exactly what is expected of him and so that only a small amount of additional oral explanation, if any, is needed. The physical make-up of tests and questionnaires and the clarity with which items are worded should also be considered.

5. *It should furnish data which can be interpreted and used easily.*

Evaluation instruments which are so complicated that they can be interpreted only by statisticians or by trained administrators have little value for classroom teachers who want evaluation data for diagnosing student strengths and weaknesses and for appraising progress. If evaluation data are to be used effectively by classroom teachers, they must be readily understood and interpreted by them. Standardized tests which have been tried out with large groups usually have published norms in terms of percentile ranks, quotients, scaled scores, T-scores, C-scores, age norms, or grade norms. While these norms make the score of an individual student more meaningful, they are often not so intelligible to teachers as they should be. Too often the score made by a student on a standardized test has been taken as an absolute index of his intelligence, achievement, or personality. Few, if any, tests are so reliable that the data can be accepted without qualification. Most test data furnish clues to the student's progress, his ability, or his aptitude, but the data need to be seen in relation to all other evidence before absolute conclusions can be drawn.

Translating quantitative data into meaningful descriptions is a part of test interpretation and should be done with skill and insight by classroom teachers if the data are to be used intelligently. However, many evaluation techniques do not give quantitative data. The value of these techniques also depends on whether or not teachers can interpret the evidence from them with ease as well as with skill and insight.

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6. *It should furnish evidence on changes in student behavior not furnished by other evaluation techniques already being used.*

In order that an evaluation program may be well-balanced, with proper emphasis given to all the objectives which the school believes important, it should be planned carefully so that each technique used is the best one available for gathering evidence on a particular objective. The behaviors inherent in coöperation, for example, are probably appraised more effectively by observation and anecdotal records than by any other technique. Anecdotal records are, however, time-consuming if kept on all behaviors and for many students; data from them are more difficult to summarize and interpret than data from most other sources. Therefore, a teacher needs to consider carefully what behaviors may be adequately appraised by group tests, questionnaires, and other instruments and what ones can be appraised satisfactorily only by observation and anecdotal records. While the ability to use library skills may be evaluated by observing students in the library, such skills may also be appraised effectively and with a minimum expenditure of student and teacher time by a paper-and-pencil test. The latter would therefore be a better technique to use, since tests of this kind can be scored objectively, can be both valid and reliable, and can yield data that are relatively easy to interpret and use.

Standardized tests with published norms and directions for scoring and interpreting the answers should form a part of any evaluation program. Many standardized tests, some good and some bad, have been devised for evaluating the student's ability to recall facts, to see cause-and-effect relationships, to make historical judgments, to perform certain skills basic to the social studies, and to use and understand words commonly used in the social studies. Recently the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association, working under the direction of Dr. Ralph Tyler, developed techniques and instruments for appraising student growth toward many of the objectives for which there previously had been no adequate means of appraisal. This was almost a revolutionary step in test-making, for the techniques developed by the Evaluation Staff have proved that many behaviors formerly considered intangible can be appraised. The work of this group is also noteworthy in that the techniques which they developed are diagnostic in character and are concerned with getting quantitative data which show not only achievement but the type of errors made by students. Many of the techniques developed by the Evaluation Staff can be utilized by classroom teachers in developing test exercises, using situations and content material related to specific units of work. Teachers and administrators inter-

ested in evaluation should become familiar with these new tests and techniques.[1]

Even though many commercial tests are available, tests for measuring students' behavior in a particular situation will usually have to be developed by the classroom teacher with or without the aid of a test technician. Constructing evaluation instruments is not easy, and many teachers feel that they have not the time and energy to make them. Perhaps an appraisal of what teachers are now doing would show that evaluation is more important in terms of their objectives than many of the things which they consider essential at present. Schools which see the importance of evaluation in providing intelligent guidance and counseling and in modifying and revising curriculums to meet the needs of youth are providing time so that teachers can make tests and devise techniques for collecting evidence of student growth.

Tests for Appraising Information and Understanding

Paper-and-pencil tests in the social studies designed to appraise information, vocabulary, concepts, and generalizations usually include one or more of the following types of items:

1. Discussion or essay   3. Multiple choice   5. Completion or recall
2. True-false   4. Matching   6. Arrangement

Discussion or essay tests.—In spite of the emphasis given to objective and standardized tests, the essay test is still the one most commonly used by social-studies teachers. Teachers who prefer this type of examination claim that it does not stress memorization and recall of factual information so much as it does organization and thought; that it offers practice in composition and clarity of expression; and that it provides an opportunity for originality and freedom of thought, whereas objective tests are mechanical and impersonal. It is also claimed that the essay test requires less expenditure of teacher time than objective tests. Even granting these advantages, although the validity of some is doubtful, the disadvantages presented by the essay test, as now used, are serious. The great variation in the scores given by different teachers to the same paper and even by the same teacher at different times has been pointed out by numerous research studies.[2] For example, an examination paper in American history read by 115 teachers received scores ranging from 45 to 90.[3] The low reliability of essay examinations is also due to the relatively few points which can be covered in one test and the element of chance which therefore enters into their selection. Furthermore, in spite of the arguments of the proponents for the essay test, the questions commonly asked in such tests call for little real thought on the part of the student or originality

in organization and expression. Most of the questions still begin with "identify," "name," "what," "give," and "why," phrases which call for factual or memorized answers. The behaviors which its advocates claim are evaluated by an essay examination could probably better be appraised in oral or written reports, a term paper, or an "open-book" examination, which calls primarily for the organization and synthesis of information, individual thought, and expression.

If essay tests are used, great care should be given to the wording of the questions so that independent thinking is demanded in answering the questions and, at the same time, students know definitely what is expected of them. The reliability of essay tests can be increased greatly by improved methods in scoring. More objective scoring is obtained when complete answers to each question are written out by the teacher and the student's answers checked against this key. Greater agreement is also obtained when the answer to the first question on each paper is evaluated before subsequent ones on any paper are read and when this procedure is used for each question in the test. Careful reading and appraising of essay examinations is so time-consuming that it more than offsets the time saved in the construction of this type of test.

True-false items.—True-false tests have been the most widely used of the various types of objective tests, and they are also the least desirable. Their widespread use has probably been due to the ease with which inferior items of this kind can be made. Oftentimes statements have been merely copied from a textbook or slightly changed to make them false. When little attention is given to the construction of test items, they tend to test only facts and to encourage rote memorization of unimportant details. The degree of validity and reliability of true-false tests has also been found to be slightly less than that of other types of objective tests but higher than that of essay tests.[4]

The advantage of true-false tests lies primarily in the wide sampling of information which can be tested in a short time rather than in the ease of construction, because the careful wording of items makes a good test of this kind as difficult as any other to make. Good items should be briefly and clearly stated. Determiners, such as *all, every, always, never,* and *only,* which usually make a statement false, and *should, may, generally, often,* and *some,* which usually make it true, should be avoided. Likewise, trick statements, double negatives, partially true statements or obvious and suggestive items should not be used.

True-false test items may be in various forms, and students may respond by marking each item *True* or *False* or, if the items are in the form of a question, *Yes* or *No.* Sometimes the words are printed

in front of the statement and students are asked to underline the correct response; or they may be asked to write or circle T or F, $+$ or $-$, $+$ or 0. When separate answer sheets are provided, the student is asked to write, underline, or circle the correct symbol on the answer sheet after the number which corresponds to each item.

Because of the element of guessing, which is present in true-false tests more than in other types of tests, they are usually scored by finding the difference between the number right and the number wrong. When the test includes a large number of items and students have been instructed not to guess, the formula usually followed is: *Total number of items minus two times the number wrong, minus the number of omissions.* This gives the same score as right minus wrong, but it is quicker to calculate. Research has shown that the scores derived by this formula are, in nearly every instance, more reliable than scores obtained by merely counting the number of right answers.

Multiple-choice tests.—The multiple-choice type of item is probably the most valuable and most flexible now in use. It provides greater opportunity for items requiring reasoned judgment, understanding, discrimination, and selection than do any of the other types. Tests of this kind have also been found to be more valid and reliable than true-false tests, but slightly less so than recall or completion tests. This type of examination can be quickly and easily scored with a key and can readily be adapted to machine scoring.

The construction of multiple-choice items calling for judgment and analysis and not simply factual information, requires considerable care and thought. All responses should be plausible, and those which are obviously incorrect or irrelevant should not be included. In making up the test, the correct answers should be distributed in random order with approximately as many of the first answers correct as the second, the third, the fourth, etc. Statements should be carefully constructed so that inadvertent clues to the correct answers are not given through the wording or the length of the response.

Multiple-choice items take many different forms. The simplest and most direct form asks a question. For example, items might be stated:

Which factor has become increasingly important in strengthening the ties binding Canada to the mother country?

1. The representation of Canada in the British Parliament
2. Mutual cancellation of war debts
3. The power of the King to appoint Canadian officials
4. Mutual trade agreements and preferences.[5]

Which one of the following was the last to become part of the American social structure?

1. Free elementary education

2. National woman's suffrage
3. Taxation of income
4. Unionization of labor.[6]

Items are also stated as incomplete sentences followed by several possible phrases or clauses. The student is asked to select the phrase which best completes each statement.

Modern concepts of democracy which stress the dignity of the individual
  1. are derived from Hebraic and Christian teachings
  2. are derived from ancient Greek and Roman mythology
  3. were stated for the first time in the Declaration of Independence
  4. were first recognized by the Anglo-Saxons
  5. are peculiar to American democracy.[7]
The chief reason why United States unemployment remained around 9,000,000 during 1939 while production reached 1929 boomtime levels was
  1. an ever-increasing birthrate
  2. the displacement of workers by machines
  3. the lack of a desire to work
  4. the depression in great industries such as motors.[8]

Multiple-choice items are easily scored either by hand or by machine. Most standardized tests provide for writing the number or letter of the best answer on the blank or in the parentheses provided at the beginning or end of the item. Separate answer sheets are provided when machine scoring is used, and they also have advantages when the test is to be hand scored. They permit, for instance, the use of the same test booklet with several classes, thus necessitating the purchase of only one class set. Furthermore, scoring is much faster when a separate answer sheet is used because all the answers can be written on one sheet arranged to provide for rapid scoring with a key. The scoring of multiple-choice items is simple, since no correction for guessing needs to be made if four or five responses are given. Where three responses are used, the correction formula commonly used is: *Number right minus one-half the number wrong;* if only two responses are given, the formula is the same as for true-false items: *Right minus wrong.*

Matching tests.—Matching tests are rather easy to construct and are particularly useful in appraising the ability to associate items and see relationships. Several types of matching tests are in common usage. In one type, items arranged in groups of three or five are to be matched with terms, persons, or places grouped in a second column. Usually there are more choices than items in order to reduce the element of guessing. In making tests of this kind, the item groups should be limited to one idea. Names, dates, and places should not be mixed in with abstract concepts. Items should also be worded carefully so that

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clues to matching items will be avoided. The following are examples
of matching items:[9]

28. Relationships existing between people in regard to making a living.
29. Relationships existing between people in regard to governmental arrangement.
30. Relationships existing between people in regard to arrangements and organizations for living together.

1. Economics
2. Cultural
3. Social
4. Racial
5. Political

37. He was the foremost leader in the struggle for the independence of the South American countries.
38. He was instrumental in establishing the people's party which advocated nationalism, democracy, and livelihood as the basic principles for the republic which he founded and of which he was the first president.
39. He led a revolution which gave the workers control not only of the economic life of his country but also of the government.

1. Sun-Yat-Sen
2. Simón Bolívar
3. Nikolai Lenin
4. George Washington
5. Pericles

Other matching tests list the items instead of grouping them. Probably not more than fifteen items should be included in any one list. Too much time is spent in hunting for the correct response if the list is too long. It is also desirable to arrange the choices in alphabetical order so that the correct responses may be easily found.

Directions: Identify each of the individuals in the left-hand column by writing the letter of the word or phrase which best identifies him in the parentheses before his name.

( ) 1. Horace Mann
( ) 2. Horace Greeley
( ) 3. Clara Barton
( ) 4. Thomas Jefferson
( ) 5. Andrew Carnegie
( ) 6. Alexander Graham Bell
( ) 7. John Dewey
( ) 8. Marian Anderson
( ) 9. Jane Addams
( ) 10. Thomas Hart Benton
( ) 11. David Starr Jordan
( ) 12. William Allen White
( ) 13. Thomas Edison
( ) 14. John Pershing
( ) 15. Woodrow Wilson

a. Artist
b. Author
c. Educator
d. Explorer
e. Inventor
f. Journalist
g. Musician
h. Philanthropist
i. Religious leader
j. Soldier
k. Statesman
l. Social worker

Completion or recall test.—The completion test consists of a series of statements from which one or more words have been omitted. The student is asked to fill in the blanks with the correct words. The simple recall test is similar except that the student is asked to answer a simple direct question. The question may, however, be in the directions and the student asked to associate persons, dates, terms, or statements with those given in the exercise. For example:

With whom is each of the following associated?
1. "Wealth of Nations"_____
2. "Gettysburg Address"_____
3. "Four Freedoms"_____
4. "Declaration of Independence"_____

Or recall or completion items might be stated:
1. The author of "Wealth of Nations" was_____
2. Who was the author of "Wealth of Nations"?_____
3. Alaska was purchased from_____by the United States in the year_____for_____dollars.

While the recall or completion test is the most reliable of all objective tests, it tends to stress factual information and rote memorization. It is probably more useful as a teaching device than as a technique for measuring growth. The test is more easily scored if the responses are all written in either the left- or the right-hand margin. Separate answer sheets also facilitate scoring. This type of test, of course, cannot be machine scored.

Arrangement test.—The arrangement test is useful in the social studies to appraise the ability of students to see continuity or chronology, or to rank events according to their importance. It is more difficult to construct and score than some of the other objective tests. Missing one item in an exercise automatically causes a student to miss at least one other item. The method of scoring which has proved most satisfactory with teacher-made tests of this kind is to subtract the sum of the differences between the student's answers and the key from the greatest possible sum of the differences. For example, if there were five items to arrange in chronological order, the difference between the key and any possible arrangement by a student could not be more than 12; hence the greatest possible sum of the differences would be 12. The method of scoring a student's paper is shown in the following test item, in which the student was asked to arrange the five historical periods in chronological order.

Key	Student's Responses		Difference	Student's Score
2	3	Crusades	1	
4	4	Renaissance	0	
1	1	Dark Ages	0	12—6=6
3	5	Rise of Cities	2	
5	2	Reformation	3	
			$\overline{6}$	

Summary.—Thus, of the techniques designed for evaluating understandings and knowledge which have been described in this section, the multiple-choice test and the matching test in which groups of similar items are grouped together seem most satisfactory. Great care in constructing test items is necessary if they are really to appraise growth in understanding and not isolated facts.

Tests for Appraising Attitudes

Although there may be a discrepancy between the opinion expressed by an individual and his real attitude, measurement of opinion has been found to be one of the most valid indices of social attitudes. The degree of success with which tests of attitude are used depends in large part on the rapport which exists between the teacher and the students. If students feel that they will be penalized if they express their true opinion, they will of course attempt to conform to the opinion which they believe is approved by the teacher. If, on the other hand, students believe that their opinion will be respected, that conformity is not necessary, and that no opinion will be regarded as right or wrong, scores from attitude scales have a high degree of reliability and validity.

Thurstone Attitude Scales.—Several different techniques have been devised to appraise attitudes by paper-and-pencil tests. Thurstone and his associates have worked out a series of thirty-five attitude scales which measure attitudes on social issues which are controversial or have a high emotional appeal, such as war, communism, crime, race, and the church. The scales come in two forms so that changes in attitudes can be measured. The method used in constructing the scales consisted of collecting a large number of statements, ranging from those which strongly opposed the issue to those which highly approved it. Each statement was written on a separate card, and a number of competent judges were asked to sort the cards in piles according to the degree to which the statement opposed or approved the issue. The scale value for each item was fixed at the mid-point of the judges' ratings. With these values, it is possible to measure the attitude of individuals and assign them a score which indicates the degree to

which they favor or oppose war, birth control, Sunday observance, and the like. The scale runs from 0 to 11. On the scale measuring attitude toward the Constitution, the values are interpreted as meaning:

0 – 1.9 Strongly prejudiced against the Constitution.
2.0– 3.9 Prejudiced against the Constitution.
4.0– 6.9 Neutral position.
7.0– 8.9 Loyal to the Constitution.
9.0–10.9 Strongly patriotic and loyal to the Constitution.

Directions: This is a study of attitudes toward the United States Constitution. You will find below twenty-one statements expressing different attitudes toward the Constitution.

Put a check mark ($\sqrt{}$) if you agree with the statement.

Put a cross ($\times$) if you disagree with the statement.

If you cannot decide about the statement, you may mark it with a question mark.

This is not an examination. People differ in their opinions about what is right and wrong on this question.

Please indicate *your own attitude* by a check mark when you agree and by a cross when you disagree.

( ) 1. I suppose there may be some places where the Constitution is weak.
( ) 2. I believe that the Constitution is out of date.
( ) 3. We should show respect and reverence toward our Constitution.
( ) 4. Several parts of the Constitution might be improved.
( ) 5. Aliens who criticize our Constitution should be sent out of this country.[10]

etc.

Wrightstone's Scale of Civic Beliefs.—This test asks the student to agree or disagree with eighty statements which sample attitudes toward problems in the areas of race, internationalism, nationalism, and political issues. The scores indicate "chiefly the extent to which the pupil's attitudes are rational, free from prejudice." Two of the twenty statements in each section are quoted here as illustrative of the type of items included in the scale. Three forms of the test have been developed.

1. The Negro is as good a citizen as any other person.
2. The American Indians should be kept on reservations.
21. The United States should allow Cuba to decide her own policies.
40. The Soviet dictatorship in Russia has been successful.
45. A patriot will criticize the faults of his country when he sees them.
53. The right to vote should be granted to property holders only.
64. Labor unions have caused us more trouble than good.
79. The unemployed are lazy and shiftless.[11]

Progressive Education Association Scale of Beliefs.—The test on

Beliefs on Social Issues developed by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study asks the students to react to two hundred items by marking them *A* if they agree with the whole statement, *U* if they are uncertain how they feel about the whole statement, and *D* if they disagree with the whole statement. The scale is divided into two parts to be given several days apart. Each item in one section is paired with an item in the other section which states the opposite point of view. Thus, it would be impossible to agree with both statements and be consistent. The test samples attitudes in the area of democracy, economic relationships, labor and unemployment, race, nationalism, and militarism.[12] A pair of statements from each area illustrates the type of statements to be found in the test.

Democracy
1. Complete freedom of speech should be given to all groups and all individuals regardless of how radical their political views are.
111. Freedom of speech should be denied all those groups and individuals that are working against democratic forms of government.

Economic Relationship
16. Public regulation of business and industry is necessary in order to protect the interests of the general public.
121. The present tendency toward regulation of business should be halted.

Labor and Unemployment
12. Poverty and unemployment could be eliminated if the problem were attacked intelligently.
102. There will always be unemployment and poverty in any social system.

Race
21. Given an equal chance, the Negroes can be as successful as the white people.
116. Negroes as a race are inferior and we can never hope for them to do as well as white people.

Nationalism
78. It is very doubtful whether the American way of doing things would be best for all nations.
188. Most countries would profit greatly by adopting the American way of doing things.

Militarism
92. One of the most effective single ways of preventing wars is to abolish profits from wars.
197. Even though war brought no profits to anyone, there still would be just as many wars.[13]

What Would You Do? A Survey of Student Opinion.—Eckert and Wilson developed still a different technique for use in the Regents' Inquiry into the character and cost of education in the state of New York which they called *What Would You Do? A Survey of Student*

Opinion. The test attempted to assay pupils' attitudes toward free speech, freedom of the press, the right of free assembly, and their attitudes toward participation by individuals in group action for the common good even at the expense of personal effort or sacrifice.[14] The test is in two parts. Part I consists of fifteen items dealing with situations in the school; Part II parallels Part I except that it deals with adult situations. After the situation is described, the student is asked to indicate his acceptance of, neutrality to, or rejection of each of the proposed reactions, one of which is liberal and one conservative. The following are two typical test items, one from each part.

Part I
3. The senior class votes to present a portrait of the principal to the school, taxing each member of the class two dollars to cover the expense. Some pupils think such a tax is unfair, and hold a protest meeting.
   a) I think that they should be allowed to draw up a petition but not to hold a public meeting.
   b) I believe that if the students consider the action unfair, they are absolutely right in holding such a meeting.
   c) If I were a senior, I would help to break up the meeting, for action taken by the majority of pupils is not open to further discussion or criticism.

Part II
3. The City Council votes funds for a new music hall for Middletown. Some of the citizens feel that this is an unnecessary expense, and they try to hold a protest meeting.
   a) I think that they should be allowed to draw up a petition, but not to hold a public meeting.
   b) I believe that if they consider the action unfair, they are absolutely right in holding such a meeting.
   c) I think that the police should break up the meeting; for action taken against the people's representatives is not open to further discussion or criticism.[15]

The Watson Test of Public Opinion.—This is a test of fair-mindedness which attempts to get at the degree of prejudice which exists in the field of religious and economic issues. The total test is composed of six forms, any one of which may be used separately.

Form A. *Cross-out Test* is composed of 51 words or phrases, such as *bolshevist, mystic, Sunday Blue Laws, Roman Catholic.* The student is asked to cross out words or phrases which are disagreeable or annoy him.

Form B. *Degree of Truth Test* has 53 items, and the student is asked to circle the symbol which expresses his judgment about the truth or falsity of the statement.

Symbols range from +2 (unqualifiedly true) to −2 (unqualifiedly false).

+2 +1 0 −1 −2 The churches are more in sympathy with capital than with labor.

+2 +1 0 −1 −2 Dancing is harmful to morals.

Form C. *Inference Test* has 10 statements of facts followed by a number of conclusions which students are to check if they believe them true on the basis of the facts given.

Example: IV. Rents in New York City are almost 100 per cent higher than they were before the war, while average living costs are only about 50 per cent higher.

☐ The landlords are getting rich profiteering.

☐ A man has a right to rent his houses for whatever he can get for them.

☐ The tenants are making many unreasonable demands and are abusing so many privileges that rents have to be high.

☐ None of these conclusions can fairly be drawn.

Form D. *Moral Judgment Test.* In this test 15 situations are presented, followed by several judgments which might be passed upon the situation, and the students are asked to place a check in front of the one with which they most fully agree.

Form E. *Arguments Test.* This test consists of 12 questions for each of which 6 arguments are presented. The student is asked to mark those arguments which he considers *strong* and those which he considers *weak.*

Question 1. Is Socialism desirable in the United States today?

1. Strong Weak It would give all the people control of the natural resources now in the hands of a few.

5. Strong Weak Socialists are undesirable radicals and extremists.

Form F. *Generalization Test.* In this test students are asked to circle the word which best expresses their convictions on each of 32 statements.

15. All Most Many Few No Adults are better qualified to decide what is best for a youth of 16 to do than the youth is.

20. All Most Many Few No Jews would take advantage of a man in a business deal if they had the opportunity to do so.[16]

Johnson School Attitude Test.—This test samples the attitude of students on school situations in which cooperation, social sensitivity, personal adjustment, and self-reliance can be expressed. Each form of the test contains 80 items. The students are asked if they agree, disagree, or are uncertain about each item in the test. The test is set up in such a way that every fourth item is keyed to one of the four types of attitudes which the test was designed to appraise. This arrangement facilitates

hand scoring if the answer sheet is set up in four columns of 20 items each. Illustrative items are:

1. The best way to teach citizenship is for teachers to enforce the school rules.
4. High-school students should not be required to do any home study.
8. Habitually coming late to class and to other meetings is not necessarily a reflection on one's personality.[17]

Tests for Appraising Appreciations

Appreciation of literature tests.—Appreciations are even more difficult to appraise than attitudes. A number of paper-and-pencil tests were constructed by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study to appraise appreciation of literature and art. The one which social-education teachers will find most useful in appraising the behaviors with which they are most concerned is the *Questionnaire on Voluntary Reading.*[18] The questionnaire consists of 100 items to which the students respond by *Yes, No,* or *Uncertain.* The subscores from the questionnaire measure the degree to which students like to read, identify themselves with what they read, are curious about their reading, express themselves creatively as a response to their reading, evaluate or judge their reading, and relate their reading to their own or social problems. The total scores reveal their appreciation or nonappreciation of literature. Typical items included in the questionnaire are:

61. Would you be interested in belonging to a club which meets frequently to discuss books which members have read?
71. Have you ever read any books which have strongly affected your political views?
76. Do you enjoy reading poetry in your leisure time?
80. Do you often become so absorbed in your reading of a book that you are almost unaware of what is going on around you?
86. Do you ever point out, either in conversation or writing, the characteristics of a book which, in your opinion, make it good literature?[19]

Tests for Appraising Interests

Academic interest tests.—It is usually assumed that the types of activities in which an individual engages when he is free to make choices reveal his interests. On the basis of this assumption, the *Interest Index for Senior High School Students* developed by the Evaluation Staff and the similar instrument developed by the Stanford Social Education Investigation for junior high school students appraise the academic interests of students. Both these indices sample the interests which students have in the various subject-matter fields and in the types of activities usually provided by the school, namely, verbal and manipulative. Each index consists of 200 items arranged in random order, to which stu-

dents respond by stating that they "like," "dislike," or are "indifferent" to the activities described in the item. Typical items are these, taken from the *Junior High School Interest Index.*[20]

1. Writing a short story.
2. Giving a party.
3. Going on a trip with the class to visit a factory, the water department, etc.
15. Singing in a glee club, chorus, or choir in school, Sunday school, or church.
24. Getting a lot of practice in conducting meetings according to parliamentary procedure.

Interest indices are particularly useful in diagnosing student interests and in locating significant characteristics and tendencies in the student's interest pattern. They are also useful in diagnosing the prevailing interests of a group and in ascertaining the effect which the school's program has had in developing interests. Evidence from these indices can also be used in planning classroom activities for a group in terms of its likes, in locating weaknesses or deficiencies in the curriculum, and in planning curriculum revision.

*Vocational interest tests.—*The *Strong Vocational Interest Blank* is probably the most widely used technique for appraising vocational interests. By means of this inventory it is now possible to evaluate a student's interest in thirty different occupations. The 420 items in the *Strong Blank* are classified under occupations, amusements, school subjects, activities, peculiarities of people, order of preference of activities, comparison of interest between two items, and ratings of present abilities and characteristics. The purpose of the blank is to indicate the agreement between the student's interests and those of persons who have been successful in the various occupations. Since the blank must be scored for each occupation separately, it is difficult to mark, but Stanford University does this scoring for a nominal sum. Most of the items may be answered with "like," "indifferent," or "dislike"; others offer choices to be checked.[21] *The Kuder Preference Record* is built upon the assumption that an individual is most likely to succeed in the vocation in which he is most interested. It consists of 504 items arranged in groups of three and gives preference scores on mechanical, clerical, scientific, computational, musical, artistic, literary, social service, and persuasive activities. The results of the test can be presented either in a preference profile or in percentiles. The data from the test show preferences but do not necessarily show aptitude or ability. The test may be machine scored.[22]

Interests also reveal the student's personal and social adjustment. The objection to most personality inventories is that they seem to pry into an individual's privacy and put him on the defensive. Then, too, many individuals are not capable of objectively appraising their own emotions and personalities. It would seem, therefore, that a technique which attempted to evaluate social and personal adjustment indirectly through asking students what they like to do would be more reliable. Interest thus becomes

an index of emotional tendencies and of the personality pattern of the individual. It becomes the expression of the aims of the individual, conscious and expressed, or unconscious and to be inferred. Liking and disliking, accepting and rejecting activities, become significant as expressions of some of the basic elements and drives within the individual.[23]

Index to Interests and Activities.[24]—This *Interest Index* makes use of the projective technique to discover an individual's emotions, feelings, drives, and motives as well as the things which have meaning and significance to him. The *Index* developed by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study consists of two inventories of 200 items each. Students are asked to indicate whether they "like," "dislike," or are "indifferent" to each item. The following items are typical:

3. Going out to dinner with the whole family.
7. Thinking of what I'll do, when I grow up, to people who have been mean to me.
14. Being in a group where one person takes the responsibility and decides what people should or should not do.
23. Having people take me for older than I am.
45. Learning new dance steps.
81. Daydreaming about the future.

While the items are arranged at random in the test, they are grouped for scoring in categories which show social adjustments, individual adjustments, and fantasy life. In the first category are items showing relationships with the family, the same sex, the opposite sex; reaction to authority; liking for school activities, out-of-school activities, solitary activities; leadership and impressing others. In the second category are items which reveal the degree to which an individual accepts his own impulses, his severity with himself, his preoccupation with cleanliness, his methodicalness, and his aggressive tendencies. Items which show the extent and type of fantasies in which a student engages or which he shuns are classed as mystery; magic; dramatics; humor; daydreaming; and concern with life, death, and birth. The number of categories and subscores into which the questionnaire is divided makes it difficult to

score without a scoring machine. But this technique is one which has much promise if carefully interpreted and used.

Bernreuter's Personality Inventory.—A number of other personality inventories are frequently used to evaluate personality adjustment. Bernreuter's measures four phases of personality: neurotic tendency, self-sufficiency, introversion-extroversion, and dominance-submission.[25] Like most other personality tests, this one calls for answers to direct questions requiring self-analysis and introspection. The following are typical of the 125 items which make up the test:

1 Yes No ? Does it make you uncomfortable to be "different" or unconventional?
2 Yes No ? Do you daydream frequently?
3 Yes No ? Do you usually work things out for yourself rather than get someone to show you?

Bell Adjustment Inventory.[26]—Another inventory widely used in secondary schools is the *Bell Adjustment Inventory*. The familiar question form which demands considerable self-knowledge and insight about one's own reactions as compared with standards considered desirable in the culture is also used in this inventory. It, therefore, has the same defects as other personality inventories which call for introspection. The inventory consists of 140 items and yields four adjustment scores: home, health, social, and emotional. These subscores increase the usefulness of the inventory in diagnosing needs.

Kefauver-Hand Guidance Tests and Inventories.—These tests were devised to give "a reasonably adequate picture of the various important characteristics of the individual upon which to base a desirable guidance service." They were made on the assumption that effective guidance is dependent on adequate information concerning the opportunities in the community and the school, knowledge of self, and recognition of sound and false guidance. Six tests and two inventories furnish information as to the extent to which students have this knowledge.

1. *Educational Guidance Test*
2. *Health Guidance Test*
3. *Recreational Guidance Test*
4. *Social-Civic Guidance Test*
5. *Vocational Guidance Test*
6. *Student-Judgment Guidance Test*
7. *Inventory of Student Plans*
8. *Inventory of Student Self-Ratings*

The tests are composed of true-false, matching, rating, and multiple-choice items. The two forms of the tests are highly comparable and are simple to administer and score. A table for converting raw scores into percentages of the total possible score is provided for comparing the relative standing of the student on the separate tests. The converted scores can then be used in drawing profiles.[27]

The techniques developed by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study have thus far been the most successful attempt to appraise various aspects of critical thinking.

Interpretation of data tests.—The *Interpretation of Data Test* which the Evaluation Staff developed evaluates the student's ability to draw conclusions and to make interpretations of new data presented to him. The student taking the test is asked to make interpretations on the basis of the data presented in the exercise rather than on the basis of other information which he might already have. Each form of the test consists of ten exercises in which data are presented in one of a variety of ways—line graphs, bar graphs, pictographs, statistical tables, running paragraphs, and charts. Each exercise is followed by fifteen statements. The student is directed to assume that the data as given are true, and then on the basis of the data he is to decide concerning each statement whether (1) the statement is true, (2) the statement is probably true, (3) the evidence is not sufficient to indicate that there is any degree of truth or falsity in the statement, (4) the statement is probably false, or (5) the statement is false. The test is designed to evaluate the student's ability to read data accurately; i.e., to locate or compare points on a graph, to compare trends in the data, and to recognize significant generalizations from the data. It also appraises the extent to which students recognize the point at which interpretations need to be qualified, as, for example, whether or not students understand the principles of extrapolation, interpolation, and sampling. The third behavior evaluated in the test is the student's ability to recognize the limitations of the data; i.e., his ability to recognize the degree to which interpolation, extrapolation, or sampling can safely be done; the fallacy of reading into data value judgments, cause and effect, and purpose; and the danger of making analogous interpretations. Part of one of the exercises included in one of the *Interpretation of Data Tests* developed by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study[28] is shown on the following page.

If students are to develop the ability to interpret data, they must be given opportunity to practice it. Teachers can construct their own test exercises using this technique with data related to the units being taught. Textbooks, school papers, pamphlets, magazines, and newspapers are full of data presented in a variety of ways which can be used to construct test exercises of this kind. An open-book test may be given when it is not possible to mimeograph the graph, pictograph, or chart found in the book or pamphlet.

Generalizations tests.—Tests of this kind usually ask students to eval-

Problem V. The table below shows the combined expenditures of all state governments in the United States for various governmental services. Amounts are in thousands of dollars.

TYPE OF SERVICE	1910		1920		1930	
	Amount	Per Cent of Total	Amount	Per Cent of Total	Amount	Per Cent of Total
1. General Government Expenses.........	43,400	11.7	74,053	10.5	125,000	9.1
2. Protection..........	19,425	5.3	32,000	4.6	72,000	5.4
3. Health.............	20,302	5.4	28,475	4.2	41,450	3.1
4. Recreation.........	2,162	0.5	4,820	0.6	9,512	0.7
5. Highways..........	58,300	15.9	125,400	18.2	292,441	21.3
6. Welfare...........	86,621	23.4	121,850	17.6	214,500	15.1
7. Education..........	148,265	37.8	315,122	44.3	591,240	45.3
Total Expenditures..	378,475	100.0	701,720	100.0	1,346,143	100.0

Statements

61. In 1935 less was spent for general government expenses than for highways.
62. The highway expenditures of New York State, Ohio, and Illinois together were at least twice as large in 1930 as in 1910.
63. In 1940 expenditures for highways will be larger than expenditures for welfare.
64. In 1930 the state of California spent more for recreation than for highways.
65. The large increase in the state expenditures for education between 1910 and 1930 was mainly due to the increase in high-school enrollment.

uate generalizations which might be drawn from given data. One technique is to present data in a paragraph or in statistical form and then to ask students to decide if the generalizations which follow are true or false. The interpretation of data exercise given above sampled the ability of students to evaluate generalizations. Another technique is to present a number of generalizations all of which are true and ask students to check those which could be drawn from the data presented. The test might also ask students to check the reason why each generalization checked applies. The following example taken from Wrightstone's *Cooperative Test of Social Studies Abilities* is an illustration.[20]

Event II

In early America, the wheat crop was raised near the region where it was to be consumed. As the railroads grew, wheat regions extended farther inland and farther away from the centers of consumption. At about the same time, farm machinery developed at a rapid rate. In 1830 the thresher came into general use, along with the reaper and the plow. Wheat became the principal crop of the western farmers.

Generalizations:

1. Mechanical inventions have made great changes in methods
   of farming .... ( )
2. Moisture is necessary to the pursuit of agriculture............... ( )
3. The cost of labor is important in determining the use of land...... ( )
4. Efficient transportation encourages farm production in new areas... ( )
5. Water transportation is cheaper than land transportation.......... ( )

Reasons:

a) Tells why the farmers should rotate their crops................ ( )
b) Gives a reason why wheat regions extended farther inland...... ( )
c) Explains an effect of the thresher, the reaper, and the plow........ ( )
d) Explains why overproduction in farming occurs................ ( )
e) Explains how soil fertility may be improved..................... ( )

Tests of the ability to apply principles of social value in new situations.—One of the techniques which the Evaluation Staff developed can be used to appraise how well students relate value generalizations to chosen courses of action, the extent to which they use undesirable reasons in supporting their conclusions, and the degree to which they attempt to rationalize their position. Since the problem situations included in the tests are controversial ones about which many people have strong personal feelings and beliefs, the courses of action chosen and the reasons used to support them reveal the value pattern or social attitudes held by students. The subscores from the test not only show the value pattern which the students apply, but answer the following questions: (1) Can students apply previously learned facts and generalizations to new problem situations? (2) Do they think through problems and support their conclusions with sound reasons? (3) Do they use undesirable or illogical arguments? (4) Do they attempt to rationalize their position or viewpoint?

Each of the social-problems tests developed by the Evaluation Staff consists of eight exercises in each of which a problem situation is described. Three possible conclusions are given, and a number of reasons which might be used to support the conclusions are stated. Although there is no "right" or "wrong" course of action or conclusion for any of the problem situations included in the tests, the reasons are either sound reasons which logically support a given course of action or they are contradictory, irrelevant, or untenable. In taking the test, the students were instructed to check the reasons which they would use to support the courses of action they chose.

The comprehensiveness with which students relate value principles or generalizations to chosen courses of action is, therefore, revealed by the scores on accurate reasons checked and the ratio of correct reasons per course of action. The difference between the accurate reasons and

the total number of statements marked shows the degree of consistency with which value generalizations are applied. The scores on contradictory, irrelevant, and untenable reasons reveal the logical discrimination or lack of it used in applying principles. High scores here are, of course, undesirable and show inability to see logical relation between principles and courses of action, to distinguish between relevant and irrelevant reasons, or to discriminate between reliable and questionable evidence. Another subscore indicates the degree to which students attempt to rationalize an undemocratic position by using democratic generalities. Students with high scores show a tendency to be influenced by "glittering generalities," to give lip service to democratic slogans and platitudes while accepting an undemocratic or compromise position.[30]

The following exercise illustrates the type of problem included in the test. Only the first five of the seventeen reasons listed in the test are quoted.

Problem VI. "Negro Student"[31]

A Negro girl applied for admission to an Eastern private boarding school which has a tradition of race tolerance and devotes a good deal of school time to fostering appreciation of the Negro race and Negro culture, and yet has never admitted a Negro to the school. Her scholastic record was excellent; she was a pleasant and well-bred girl; her father was a respected physician, and she had enjoyed cultural opportunities common to children in professional families. The school board decided not to admit her. Some of the staff thought this was an inconsistent and wrong position for a school such as theirs to take.

What do you think the school board should have done?

Directions: Choose the course (or courses) of action and fill in the appropriate spaces on the answer sheet under Problem VI.

Courses of Action:

A. The school board should have admitted the girl.
B. The school board was right in not admitting her.
C. The school board should have admitted the girl as a day-student and made arrangements for her to live outside the school.

Directions: Choose the reasons which you would use for your course (or courses) of action and fill the spaces on the answer sheet in the column under the course of action you marked at the top. If you have chosen more than one course of action, and a reason supports both, mark it in both columns.

Reasons:

1. In a democracy there should be no race discrimination.
2. To admit the girl would encourage too many other Negroes to expect the same privilege.
3. By means of a compromise arrangement, the school will be able to uphold

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the principle of racial tolerance without arousing acute student antagonism.

4. A school which preaches race tolerance should also practice it.
5. By admitting a Negro the school runs the risk of loss of income through withdrawal of white students.

Tests for Appraising Work Habits and Study Skills

Although work habits and study skills can be appraised through observation, a paper-and-pencil test is much more economical as far as the teacher's time is concerned and also much more objective. Then, too, in large groups it is often difficult to diagnose the problems which particular students are having unless paper-and-pencil techniques are used. The *Cooperative Test of Social Studies Abilities* developed by Wrightstone appraises the ability of students to obtain, organize, and interpret facts, as well as apply generalizations. In addition to multiple-choice, matching, and completion exercises, the test utilizes unusual and effective techniques such as the following:

Directions: Another method for checking the relevancy of material is to indicate in an outline, such as follows, every statement (major or minor) which is irrelevant and does not belong to the purpose expressed. Mark with a plus sign (+) any statement which is relevant and belongs. Mark with a minus sign (−) any statement which is irrelevant (does not belong) to the purpose expressed.

I. Reasons for Franklin D. Roosevelt's victory in the 1932 election
  1. The country was dissatisfied with the Republican adminis-
    tration .... ( )
    A. The Republicans did little for unemployed................ ( )
    B. Steel corporations raised the prices of their products......... ( )
    C. Herbert Hoover was unpopular............................. ( )
    D. The Republicans exercised too much favoritism............ ( )

The outline consists of three more sections, fourteen items in all. Another technique used in the test also for organizing facts is as follows:

Directions: The purpose of this section is to arrange the items for each topic in a good logical outline. Place the number of those items which cover large areas and are major headings in the parentheses beside the Roman numerals I, II, etc. Then place the number of the subheadings, or subordinate items, under each major heading next to the letters A, B, etc. Be sure to organize your main headings in logical order, as well as the subordinate items.

Great Britain as an Empire
  1. Imports raw materials from colonies for her
    manufactures   I.......... (3)
  2. Colonies acquired by conquest   A......... (2)
  3. How possessions were acquired   B......... (5)

4. Manufacturing her major industry   II..........(6)
5. Lands gained by colonization   A.........(4)
6. Industry   1.......(1)

The *Iowa Every-Pupil Test of Work-Study Skills* appraises work habits and study skills of junior high school students. It evaluates the student's ability to read and interpret maps, graphs, charts, and tables and to use basic references, an index, and a dictionary.[32]

The *Library and Sources of Information Test,* Forms A and B, developed by the Stanford Social Education Investigation, appraises the ability of students to use a book, an index, the card catalogue, the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature,* and basic references, as well as their ability to judge the reliability of sources of information. Typical items from the test are given below:

40. By consulting the card catalogue, one can find (1) the latest magazine, article on the "Good Neighbor Policy" with South America, (2) the call number of a book, (3) the size of the city of New York, (4) the names of the recent "best sellers," (5) the best authority on "Socialized Medicine."

63. Suppose you wished to make a graph showing the number of immigrants from various foreign countries who have come to the United States since 1930; where would you go to get your data? (1) *World Book,* (2) *Encyclopaedia Britannica,* (3) *the dictionary,* (4) *Statistical Abstract of the United States,* (5) *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.*

68. Suppose you wished to find the most recent facts about the present government of Turkey, including the personnel, political policy, and important accomplishments of its government. To which of the following references would you turn first to get your basic information? (1) a history textbook, (2) dictionary, (3) *Statesman's Yearbook* or an encyclopedic yearbook, (4) *Statistical Abstract of the United States,* (5) an atlas.

Each form contains 75 items, and subscores for purposes of diagnosis can be taken off for each of the five parts.

For teachers who wish to construct their own tests for diagnosing or appraising study skills, *Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills,* a bulletin of the National Council for the Social Studies, is helpful. Selected test items suggest techniques for evaluating twenty-three different study skills considered important by social-studies teachers.[33]

Conclusion.—No attempt has been made in this discussion to explore all the techniques used in gathering data by paper-and-pencil tests or to examine all the tests available to social-studies teachers or to recommend any specifically. Rather, techniques have been discussed which seem most fruitful for gathering evidence on student behavior considered important in social education in the hope that the discussion will be helpful to teachers who wish to construct tests of their own.

Those interested in commercial tests should consult the *Mental Measurements Yearbook,* which critically reviews all published tests.[34] The selection of tests should always be made in terms of the objectives which the school considers desirable and in terms of the criteria set up at the beginning of this chapter.

Other Techniques

Techniques other than paper-and-pencil tests should also be used in gathering evidence of student growth. Observations should be made of such classroom behavior as tolerance of the ideas of others, coöperation in working with other children on a group project, self-direction in attacking a problem and starting to work, and responsibility in fulfilling obligations and completing assumed tasks. Original themes and poems, autobiographies, leisure-time reports, diaries, reports on books and magazines read and on school and out-of-school activities, and analysis of projects and art work—all give useful evidence of student growth and development. Teachers need to be as clear about the kind of behavior they are looking for in using any of these techniques as they are in the evaluation of behavior by paper-and-pencil tests. If it is *growth in creative expression which is to be evaluated, then children must be allowed to express themselves freely.* If the appraisal is to be valid and objective, teachers must also agree on the specifications under which an observation is to take place.

Direct Observation

Probably the best method of gathering evidence on changes in behavior is by direct observation. Unfortunately, observations are not always accurate and objective, and subsequent observations crowd out the memory of previous ones. Techniques for observing accurately in terms of specific outcomes and for recording observations objectively need to be developed and followed.

Anecdotal records.—One way for recording observations made on student behavior is the anecdotal record. Case studies developed by the Committee on the Study of Adolescence, the data collected by the California Adolescent Study, and the reports from the Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute point out the value of this technique. Care should be taken that an anecdote records what actually took place and not the teacher's interpretation of the incident. An anecdotal record which tells that Mary is developing more self-assurance without describing the particular behavior which caused the teacher to reach that conclusion is not objective evidence and makes it impossible for other teachers to evaluate the behavior. Anecdotal records, to be

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valuable, should report what happened as accurately and objectively as an X-ray picture.[36] If the observer wants to make an observation or explanation which will make the anecdote more meaningful, it may be added, but it should be separate and apart from the observation. The record itself should be clear, terse, and objective. It should be made promptly so that it is remembered accurately and not colored by subsequent behavior. Each record should be dated and signed. The behavior recorded should be significant in the student's development and should show positive and admirable aspects of growth and behavior as well as negative qualities.

The form for recording the original record should be simple and easy to use. It should have a place for the student's name, the date, the incident, and the observer's signature. In schools which use 3 x 5 cards, interpretations and recommendations are usually written on the back of the card. Where a half page or full page is used for each recording, the comment can follow the anecdote. Some teachers prefer to keep a loose-leaf notebook with a page for each student in the class. Several observations can thus be recorded on one page. The headings on each page might take the following form:

Student's Name Mary Brown Period 3rd Class Social Living		
Date	Anecdotes	Comment
9–15	Offered to explain to Ann what the class had been doing during her absence.	Most coöperative
10–11	Showed Peter how to use an index.	
10–15	Volunteered to go to the City Clerk's office for some data on population.	

This technique, valuable as it is, is likely to become too time-consuming for the average classroom teacher unless it is carefully planned and kept regularly and systematically. Since it is impossible to make anecdotal records on all behaviors, teachers should decide which four or five are to be observed. These should be behaviors which exhibit themselves most naturally in classroom and school situations and about which it is hard to get evidence with paper-and-pencil tests. Without this selectivity, teachers are likely to undertake to record all types of behavior, with the result that the technique becomes too burdensome and is given up as impractical. Anecdotes on too many different types of behavior are also difficult to classify and summarize. On the other

hand, if a school decides that anecdotal records are the most valuable technique for getting evidence on certain objectives, then the matter of keeping them should not be left to the individual whim of the teacher. Faculties should agree on what objectives they will study by means of anecdotal records, how these are to be kept, to whom they are to be sent for summarizing and recording, and the minimum number of anecdotes expected from each teacher.

The number of anecdotes which a teacher can record in a day depends on his teaching load and on whether time is provided for guidance and evaluation. It is usually impossible to make the recording when the incident is taking place. To stop and write an anecdote would disrupt the work going on in the class. Too many things demand the teacher's attention even between classes to make the writing of anecdotal records possible then. Incidents should be recorded each day, however, if they are to be accurate and significant. If observations were recorded for only two or three students in each class every day, the burden would not be too great on any one teacher and, by the end of the term, each teacher would have written several anecdotal records on each student in his class.

Anecdotal records should be considered confidential, and care should be taken to see that they do not fall into the hands of someone who might misuse them. Summaries of the records and anecdotes filed in the counselor's office should be made by the teacher or administrator who serves as the student's counselor. If teachers wish to keep copies of the anecdotes, carbon copies can be sent to the counselor; but it is important that all records be accumulated in one central place and studied in relation to each other.

Summarizing anecdotal records is a difficult task. Whether they are summarized at the end of a term, a semester, or a year depends on the local situation. Often the summary takes the form of a brief statement which can go into the cumulative record. If the behavior has been carefully defined, the summary can be made in code and a tally (+ or —) placed in the appropriate column. If, for example, tolerance, cooperation, self-direction, and responsibility were agreed upon as the objectives on which anecdotal records were to be gathered, and if each were defined in five or six specific behaviors, the summary might be made on a sheet similar to the form shown on the following page, where each capital letter stands for the specific behavior agreed upon.

Time-sampling technique.—When the time-sampling technique is used, specifically defined behaviors are observed and recorded during a stated period of time. A trained observer inconspicuously watches what goes on in the classroom. Whenever an individual exhibits be-

Teacher.. Date.......... ....

Names of Pupils	Tolerance					Coöperation					Self-Direction					Responsibility				
	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E
....																				
....																				

* Adapted from Report and Record Committee of the Commission on the Relation of School and College, "Manual for Behavior Descriptions." (Mimeographed.)

havior which could be classified under one of the defined objectives, the observer writes the code or symbol after the student's name. During the period of observation, a student may show behavior which would be classified under one or more of the objectives. Wrightstone has devised a means for scoring observed behavior which controls the variables of time and number of pupils.

Divide the total number of minutes of observation by the number of pupils attending the class, thus securing the per capita minutes of class discussion. Then divide each pupil's score by the per capita minutes. The resulting quotient gives an index of each pupil's frequency of coded and defined behavior.[36]

Thus a class of forty observed for ten 30-minute periods would yield 7.5 minutes per pupil. If a student had 10 scores for coöperation, his score would be 1.33. The observer's anecdotes on each student might also be classified according to the equal-appearing-interval technique which Thurstone devised for his attitude scales. According to this technique, several teachers rate the behaviors classified under an objective on an eleven-point scale ranging from 0 to 11. The average rating of the judges gives the pupil a score which then can be described according to its position on the scale.

Records

Much information about the growth and development of adolescents can be obtained from records of what they do in their leisure time, what they choose to write or talk about when they are given freedom of choice, their art projects, their reading, and similar activities. One of the ways students can help with their evaluation program is to help keep and summarize many types of records.

Time charts.—A time chart is one way of bringing to light interests

and purposes which are implicit in behavior but of which the student may not be aware. On the time chart the student records what he does each day, disregarding activities which take less than half an hour and activities which he considers his own business exclusively. This can be done during the first few minutes of the guidance period. Once a week the student can go over his chart and consider toward what interest or purpose his activities seem to have been directed. If the student is keeping an interest diary, he can record what he has done about his interests or purposes. If a new interest is discovered, that may be recorded. If no interest diary is being kept, then a notation of the interest or purpose toward which the week's activities were directed should be made on the back of the time sheet, which is then filed in the student's folder. It is sometimes helpful to color those activities on the chart which are purposeful activities. Probably not more than half the student's time will be purposefully spent, since many activities are routine, unexpected, or imposed activities. Charts which have little or no color on them should cause the student concern, and an effort should be made to correct the use which he makes of his time.

An extended use of the time chart probably defeats its purpose. Interests and purposes can usually be discovered in a period of two weeks or a month. A time chart for a week, divided into hour or half-hour blocks, can be duplicated and given to each student to keep in his notebook. The hours to include in the chart should depend on the group, but usually from 6 A.M. until 1 A.M. will cover the activities of most adolescents.

Record of work habits.—Some teachers require students who fail to complete an assignment satisfactorily and on time, or who fail to carry out an obligation, to fill out a card stating what they failed to do, why,

TIME CHART*

Name						Date	
Time	Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
6 A.M.							
7 A.M.							
8 A.M.							
9 A.M.							

* Adapted from the Time Chart developed in the Denver Public Schools.

and what they expect to do about it. The card is then filed in the student's folder as part of his permanent record. While this is a negative report, it has value if it causes the child to correct bad habits of procrastination and negligence. Absence of such cards in a student's folder would be evidence that he did meet his obligations promptly and to the best of his ability.

Reading records.—A free-reading record can also be kept by the student. If reading records are used as a means of appraising interest, maturity, personal adjustment, and appreciation, they should include all the books which a student reads and not just those which appear on the approved list of the social-studies and English departments. Often the unassigned books read outside of class are more revealing of the student's real interests and needs. If a card—either 5 x 8 or 5 x 10 and similar in form to the one on the following page—is printed, the student can list the books as he reads them. Some records call for the author, title, date finished, and some brief comment on how much the book was enjoyed. These cards should be kept in a file easily accessible to both the students and the teacher.

Some teachers prefer a loose-leaf note-book with a sheet for each child in the class. This form has the advantage of larger spaces in which to write and of being more convenient to use than a card file. It, too, should be kept by the student and should be open to both students and teachers for inspection. All spaces in the record except "maturity level" can be filled in by the student. This the teacher will need to fill in by comparing the voluntary reading done by the student with the list of 1000 books rated according to maturity level.[37] He can then evaluate the student's reading program and guide him more intelligently. At the end of the year the reading record should be filed in the student's individual folder as part of his permanent record. An accumulation of a student's reading record for the six years during which he is in the secondary schools would give valuable evidence concerning the development of his reading interests.

Leisure-time record.—Some teachers are concerned about how boys and girls spend their leisure time and feel that a leisure-time record is essential in getting a complete picture of the whole personality of the child. Leisure-time reports give evidence not obtained from the time chart, for they tell what movies a student sees, what radio programs he listens to, and what magazines he reads, as well as the sports, parties, plays, and concerts he enjoys. Students can keep this record themselves, handing it in once a week or once every two weeks. They can also help in summarizing it. The value of a summary is to help students evaluate their own leisure-time activities in terms of their purposes and interests.

Name...   Class...

                                 Teacher...

Author	Title	Rating by Student	Type	Maturity Level	Date
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					

All such records should be evaluated in terms of the time spent, the interest shown, and the variety of interests exhibited. The form for a leisure-time report reproduced on page 394 illustrates some of the activities of adolescents about which the school needs information in getting a complete picture of their growth and development. Leisure-time reports should, however, be developed with the interests of a particular group in mind.

Writing records.—Themes of various kinds—diaries, autobiographies, letters, newspaper articles, and the like—often give evidence of student interests, appreciations, social attitudes, personal-social adjustment, creativeness, and emotional maturity. How to summarize the evidence gleaned from written work is often a difficult problem. Revealing evidence can be recorded as an anecdotal record. The themes themselves can be filed in the student's folder. Often the subject which the student selects for his theme is in itself a clue to the student's personality. Some schools have found it as useful to have students keep a writing record as to keep a reading record. A form which has been found useful has a place for recording the title or subject of each paper, the type of writing it is, and the number of errors in the various mechanics of writing. As each paper is returned to the student, the entry can be made on the summary sheet before the paper is filed in the folder. It is necessary to record the approximate length of a paper in order that the number of mechanical errors can be more intelligently appraised. A sample form is shown on page 395.

Personal Questionnaire

In order that teachers may know their students better, it is often necessary to collect data about their family background, the socio-

Leisure-Time Report

Student's Name .... Period .... Date ....

I. *Magazine Articles Read*

	Author	Article	,	Magazine	Date	Pages
1.	....	....		....	....	....
2.	....	....		....	....	....
3.	....	....		....	....	....
4.	....	....		....	....	....

II. *Radio Programs Enjoyed*

	Program	Nature of Program	Time
1.	....	....	....
2.	....	....	....
3.	....	....	....
4.	....	....	....

III. *Newspaper Read*.. ....

IV. *Cinema or Theater*.. ....

V. *Concerts, Lectures,*.. ....
    Recitals, Exhibits ....

VI. *Outdoor Activities*
    1. Games and sports... ....
    2. Outings, picnics ....

VII. *Indoor Activities*
    1. Games and sports... ....
    2. Dancing   ....

VIII. *Social Activities*
    1. School clubs   ....
    2. Out-of-school clubs.. ....
    3. Church socials   ....
    4. Parties   ....

Name................................ Class............................ Instructor....................

DATE	SUBJECT OR TITLE OF PAPER	TYPE OF WRITING					LENGTH OF PAPER	NUMBER OF ERRORS							COMMENTS
		Essay	Topical Report	Letter	Play	Book Reviews		Spelling	Punctuation	Sentence Structure	Paragraph Structure	Grammar	Capitalization	Manuscript Form	

economic status of the family, hobbies, leisure-time interests, work experiences, unusual experiences, and the like. This can often be done by means of a questionnaire. The *Sims Score Card* for socio-economic status and Wrightsone's *Social Background Data Sheet* furnish information about the social and economic background of the student which yields both quantitative and descriptive scores.

Questionnaires can be constructed to furnish information of most use to teachers in terms of the other data available on students' personal records or the school's cumulative record. Such questionnaires usually contain information about the following items.

1. Family
   a) Parents—nationality, education, occupation, marital status
   b) Siblings—sex, age, education
2. Home
   a) Magazines and books in the home
   b) Authority in the home
   c) Chores or regular jobs done in the home
   d) Things which the family do together
   e) Things which student likes or dislikes about the home
3. Recreational Interests
   a) Hobbies
   b) Vacation experiences
   c) Friends

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4. Vocation
    a) Work experiences
    b) Educational plans
    c) Vocational plans

The questionnaire used at Baker Junior High School is written in the form of an autobiography and is less formal than most questionnaires. Its use assures teachers of getting the information they want, which is often not true when students write autobiographies without questions to direct them.

Check Lists

As part of the record of cultural experiences, some schools ask their students to fill out check lists on movies seen, magazines and news-papers read, and radio programs heard. These records could, of course, be taken from the diaries or leisure-time reports, but the questionnaire provides information not obtained from any of the other forms. These records should be evaluated in the same terms as the leisure-time report.

Movie and radio check lists.—The movie check list provides an index to the number of films seen by the student, the type of film liked or disliked, and the evaluation placed by the student upon the film. Like-wise, the radio check list should reveal the time the student spends listening to the radio, the programs listened to and liked, his interests and appreciations. Radio preferences, it has been said,

are one of the most valid, reliable and sensitive indices now available of interests not only in music but in drama, current affairs, social problems and the like. The radio is also unique among the instruments commonly used by schools to discover interests in that it so readily brings to light undesirable interests, or interests that are at least unpromising or a waste of time.[38]

Movie and radio check lists, like contemporary-affairs tests, have to be made each year if they are to be useful. A list of current movies, good and bad, can be compiled with the aid of movie magazines. Listing the principal actor and actress aids students in identifying the movie. It is probably better to arrange the ..iovies in alphabetical order than to group them according to type, for some students might check historical and documentary films if they thought that would be considered desirable even though they had not seen the films. Alpha-betical listing, however, complicates the interpretation, especially if teachers are interested in comparing the type of movies seen and liked by the students. Key letters placed before the movie, such as *C* for comedy, *A* for adventure and melodrama, *W* for Western, would help the scorer in tabulating the results. Radio questionnaires are quite

similar except that the programs are usually grouped according to type, such as mixed programs, serials, classical music, dance music, news, and commentators. The directions, like those for the movie questionnaire, ask the student to check the programs he listens to and likes, those he likes fairly well but would not go out of his way to hear, and those he dislikes and avoids. It is useful to have students summarize the programs listened to and the listening time each day.[39]

Newspaper and magazine check lists.—Magazine check lists also reveal the interests and maturity of the student. The check list prepared by the Evaluation Staff groups one hundred magazines according to fourteen types and asks the student to check the magazine under the appropriate heading.[40] A simpler form with fewer magazines would probably prove just as satisfactory and be less expensive both to administer and to score. The form decided on for both the magazine and the newspaper questionnaire should be in terms of the objectives being evaluated. Usually it is not enough to ask students what newspapers they read daily or occasionally or how much time they spend each week reading newspapers. It is often more important to know what sections of the paper are read each week and the political policy of the paper read. In the study of student interests made by the

CHECKLIST: ONE HUNDRED MAGAZINES*

NAME OF MAGAZINE	Seldom read	Read occasionally	Read regularly	Skimmed only	Read in part	Read in full	In school	Home	Friend	Public Library	Newsstand	Elsewhere	Check here if assigned
							WHERE OBTAINED						
								Out of School					
A. Popular weeklies													
1. Collier's													
2. Liberty													
3. Saturday Evening Post													

* Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study, *Checklist of One Hundred Magazines* (New York: Progressive Education Association).

Stanford Social Education Investigation, it was found that while most of the students said they read a newspaper daily, their reading was often confined to the "funny section" only. Few students ever read the editorials or the columnists, and in some groups 50 per cent did not look at the news other than the headlines.

Rating Scales

Self-rating scales.—As part of the evaluation program, some schools encourage students to rate their own growth in the objectives which they formulate for the course. While not so objective or reliable as other evidence, rating scales do have value in keeping before the student the objectives which he and the teacher have agreed on and in pointing out to him his own shortcoming and achievements. Some rating scales list the objectives as set up by the class and ask the student to check his growth in the appropriate column. The columns may be headed: *Much progress, Little progress, No progress,* and *No opportunity for progress;* or the headings may be *Never, Seldom, Occasionally, Usually,* and *Always.*

Other rating scales require more discreet judgments and allow the student to check his progress according to scale. Self-rating scales of this kind should also be developed in terms of the specific objectives of a particular group. Illustrative of the type of items which might appear on such scales is the form shown on the opposite page.

Ratings by others.—The same kinds of scales are also used by teachers for rating students. Some rating scales consist of character traits on which teachers are asked to pass subjective judgments. Others are made in terms of the behavioral objectives in which the school is interested. Teaching staffs should formulate their own scales and should define each behavior carefully and specifically so that all teachers place the same interpretations upon the behavior. It is difficult to make rating scales objective and to rule out all personal bias. The "halo effect" of one personality characteristic may invalidate judgment on others. More reliable and objective ratings are obtained when the rater is judging individuals whom he has observed over an extended period but who are not old friends and acquaintances or persons whom he likes or dislikes, admires or despises.[41] The scale devised by Haggerty, Olsen, and Wickman[42] is one of the most satisfying.

"Guess Who" technique.—The opinion test developed by Carolyn Tryon of the Adolescent Study Staff of the University of California Institute of Child Welfare is a technique for evaluating adolescent personality by adolescents. It is a modified form of the technique used by Hartshorne and May in their studies in the nature of character

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Name..   Date................ ....

Directions: Read the behaviors which describe the opposite ends of the scale for each objective and then place a cross (X) on the scale at the point which you think would best describe your own behavior in terms of those two extremes.

Objective	Minimum Rating		Average		Maximum Rating	
	0	1	2	3	4	5
1. Intellectual Curiosity						
	Have no interest in material beyond the assignment.				Constantly seek information in excess of assignment.	
	0	1	2	3	4	5
2. Work Habits						
	Work spasmodically, procrastinate, cannot concentrate.				Concentrate on my work. Budget my working time.	
	0	1	2	3	4	5
3. Study Skills						
	Am unable to locate material for myself. Don't know how to study.				Can locate material easily and like to work ahead on problems.	
	0	1	2	3	4	5
4. Scientific Thinking						
	Am unable to draw good generalizations or find solutions to problems.				Draw my conclusions after studying all reliable data.	

Illustrative Items from Haggerty-Olsen-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules

7. Is he indifferent or does he take interest in things?

Is indifferent, unconcerned (5)	Uninquisitive, rarely interested (4)	Displays usual curiosity and interest (1)	Interests are easily aroused (2)	Has consuming interest in almost everything (3)

21. How flexible is he?

Stubborn, hidebound, nonconformist (5)	Slow to accept new customs and methods (3)	Conforms willingly as necessity arises (2)	Quick to accept new customs and methods (1)	Easily persuaded, flaccid, unstable (4)

and was called by them the "'Guess Who" test.[43] The directions tell the students:

In this booklet are some word pictures of members of your class. Read each statement and write down the names of the persons whom you think the de-

scription fits. Remember (1) Several people may fit one picture. You may write down after each description as many names as you think belong there. (2) The same person may be mentioned for more than one word picture. (3) Put your name down if you think the description fits you. (4) If you cannot think of anyone to match a particular word picture, go on to the next one.[44]

Twenty traits are then described in terms of the extremes of each. The traits used were: restless, quiet; talkative, silent; attention-getting, nonattention-getting; bossy, submissive; unkempt, tidy; fights, avoids fights; daring, afraid; leader, follower; active in games, sedentary; humors one's self, does not humor one's self; friendly, unfriendly; popular, unpopular; good-looking, not good-looking; enthusiastic, listless; happy, unhappy; humor-jokes, humorless-jokes; assured with adults, shy with adults; assured-class, embarrassed-class; grown-up, childish; older friends, younger friends.

Each trait was defined, as, for example, the first one:

1. Here is someone who finds it hard to sit still in class; he (or she) moves around in his (or her) seat or gets up and walks around.
2. Here is someone who can work quietly without moving around in his (or her) seat.

The student's score is the function of the number of times he is mentioned by his classmates. Self-mentions are not counted. The first mentioned in each pair is given a positive value, the second a negative value. The student's score is the algebraic sum of the number of times he is mentioned. The sums, however, are translated into the proportion of the class voting for him. For example, if a boy were mentioned by 50 per cent of the class as being restless and by 5 per cent of the class as quiet, his score would be 45. If not mentioned at all or if mentioned by the same number of students for both items in the pair, his score would be 0. The test, Tryon believes, does not measure the personality of each child so much as the "environment of opinion in which he lives—an important aspect of the adolescent's environment." As a key to understanding peer culture and the relative value which adolescents place on twenty personality traits, this technique has much value. Without an understanding of values important to adolescents, effective guidance does not take place.

   Friendship charts.—In addition to the ratings given students by other members of the class on the "Guess Who" test, it is necessary, if teachers are to diagnose the need of boys and girls in the area of social relations in order that they may help them make more satisfying personal adjustments, that they understand the social interplay in the classroom, the patterns of friendship which exist, and the social aspirations of in-

dividual students. The Adolescent Study carried on by the University of California[45] developed a simple technique for studying friendship patterns which teachers in the Stanford Social Education Investigation found useful in studying personal relationships in the classroom. This technique is modeled on Moreno's method of studying group structure, known as *sociometry*.[46] The teacher asks the students to write down the names of their best friends. Since they are to choose only their very best friends, the teacher explains that most people write only two or three names and seldom more than five. In some instances the students are asked to write only the names of individuals in the class; in other cases no limitation is placed on the choices. Restricted choice makes it easier to pattern the friendships, but unrestricted choice has advantages in that it shows whether children are finding satisfactory social relationships outside the immediate classroom and whether they are turning to older or younger persons for friendship. Some preliminary explanation may be necessary with junior and senior high school students in order to allay any suspicion as to why the teacher wants to know their friends. The friendship patterns are then diagramed. In the diagram below girls are indicated by circles and boys by squares.
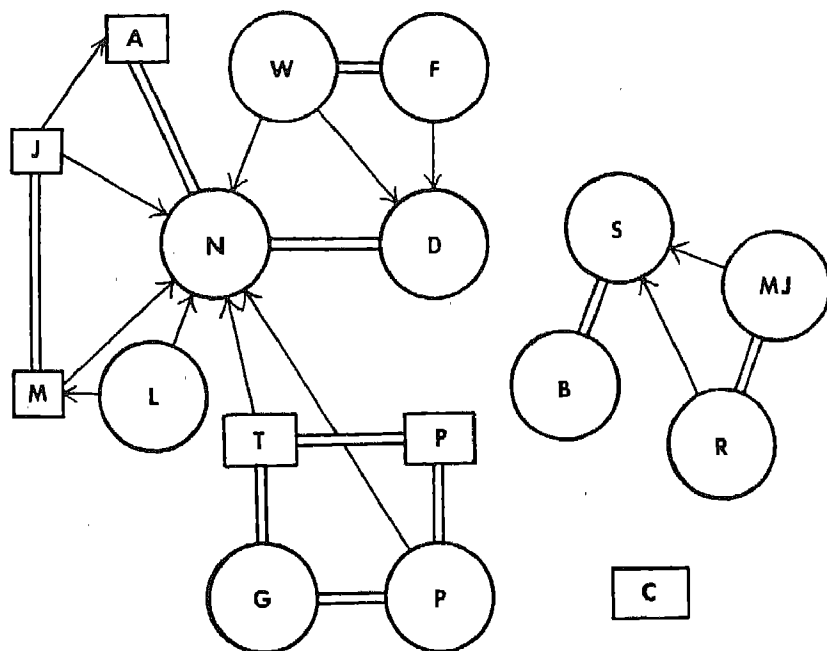
The diagram reveals mutually recognized friendships (double lines),
social aspirations (shown by arrows), "stars of attraction," "stars of
rejection," and "isolates," or students who have not been able to estab-
lish satisfying relationships within the group circle. The evidence
gathered from friendship charts is useful to teachers in making seating
arrangements, forming committees, providing experiences in which
young people can achieve and gain recognition from their peers, help-
ing those who need it to overcome the social handicaps in manners,
habits, and dress which tend to isolate them, and in giving to all stu-
dents opportunities for the development of new and satisfying personal
relations.

Analysis of Student Work

In addition to the books they read and the writing they do, students'
records in art work, projects selected and carried out, class participa-
tion, committee work, panel discussions, and the like all give evidence
of student growth and development in many behaviors. The techniques
suggested in Chapter 8 for appraising oral discussions and work plans
furnish evidence of growth. Records of art work, appraisals of projects,
and individual and group activities should be kept in the student's
folder as part of the cumulative and permanent record.

The need for evaluating and recording the work which students do
on group and individual projects necessitates the development of forms
on which such records can be systematically kept. These forms should
be devised so that the evidence recorded reveals not only the number
and nature of the projects carried out by the student during the year
but the quality of the work done and the growth made. The report
might take the following form:

PROJECT RECORD

Name..Period..............Class..................................

Date	Nature of Project	Individual or Group	Rating	Evidence of Strength or Weaknesses Revealed

Summary

Selection of techniques to use in appraising student progress should be made in terms of the objectives which the student and teacher hope to achieve and in accordance with the principles discussed in this chapter; namely, (1) they should yield as objective evidence as possible; (2) they should provide valid evidence; (3) they should provide reliable evidence; (4) they should require a minimum of pupil and teacher time; (5) they should furnish data which can be interpreted and used easily; and (6) they should furnish evidence on changes in student behavior not furnished by better evaluation techniques.

INTERPRETATION AND USE OF EVALUATION DATA

EVALUATION is functional only when the data collected are interpreted and used for individual guidance and counseling, for planning educa-. tional experiences, and for curriculum revision. Before teachers can make meaningful interpretations, they need to know thoroughly the tests and instruments they use and to understand the meaning of each score. Standardized tests have the advantage in that raw scores are usually translated into percentiles, age norms, grade norms, or scaled scores which have meaning to teachers. The manual which accom- panies standardized tests usually explains how the norms were de- veloped and the basis on which the reliability and validity of the test were established. Where subscores are also taken off, it is necessary to understand the interrelatedness of these scores if a true and complete picture is to be had of the student's behavior, of his present status, and of his needs. Quantitative data need also to be translated into meaningful descriptions and hypotheses formed as to the possible causes of the strengths and weaknesses revealed by the data. Although test data in themselves never reveal causation, the collection of such data would have little value unless used as a basis for forming hypotheses as to causes and remedies and as a basis for curriculum revision and individual and group guidance and counseling.

Too often, however, such hypotheses are formulated and acted upon without adequate data or without recognition of the interrelatedness of the evaluation evidence which is available. It is, therefore, important that teachers and administrators recognize the relation which exists between the evidence gathered by means of one evaluation technique and that gathered by others before drawing conclusions. Unless teachers recognize that all evidence on student behavior is interrelated and unless they utilize the evidence gathered in various ways and by numerous techniques to get as comprehensive a picture of the student and his needs as possible, fallacious conclusions may be drawn and an atomistic picture of the child obtained. Analyzing behavior into separate entities in order that it may be appraised and strengths and weaknesses diagnosed does not mean that the student's personality should be seen in segments. Attitudes influence understanding, interest

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retards or accelerates the acquisition of skills, understanding affects value patterns, and so on. Growth in one behavior cannot take place without affecting the total behavioral pattern of the individual. Evidence gathered by one evaluation instrument or technique must, therefore, be explained in relation to other evidence before the data can be completely understood.

Principles Governing the Recording of Evaluation Data

It is because of the necessity of seeing the interrelatedness of all evidence relative to a student's status and growth that techniques for summarizing and recording evaluation data have been developed. Since behavior is not static but continually changing, the collection of evidence must also be a continuous process, and careful recording and reporting of such evidence must be made so that intelligent appraisal can take place.

In recording evaluation data, the following principles need to be observed:[1]

1. *A full and complete cumulative record of the student's progress in all the objectives which the school considers important, together with a personal history of the student, should be kept in one central file where such information can be available to all teachers at all times.*

Too often, when cumulative records are kept, they are buried in the principal's or registrar's office and are seldom used by teachers. While it is probably necessary for the records to be kept in one file easily available to the administrator charged with counseling and guidance duties, such records must at the same time be accessible to teachers if they are to use them in planning educational experiences to meet students' needs. Some schools have solved this dilemma by having two complete files—one which stays with the counseling teacher, frequently the social-studies teacher, and a duplicate or a briefer record which is kept in the central office.

2. *Evaluation data for each student in the form of test scores, information concerning home background, health, work experience, etc., should be sent to all of the student's teachers as well as to counselors and guidance directors.*

Schools which recognize the counseling function of the social-education or general-education teacher have seen the necessity of supplying him with necessary information about the students enrolled in his class. Often, however, the data do not get into the hands of other teachers. They, too, need to know the students with whom they work if they are to plan intelligently to meet individual differences. Much teacher and student time can also be saved if data collected in one classroom are likewise made available to other teachers.

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Some schools have operated on the erroneous assumption that teachers cannot be trusted with confidential information about a student's health, family background, personality difficulties, or intelligence quotient. Often teachers have erred in their handling of students because information known to the school authorities was not made available to the teacher in the classroom. For example, teachers have been known to send students with serious heart trouble on errands and have allowed them to run up and down stairs all because they did not have the information recorded on the health chart and known to the school nurse and doctor. Either copies should be made of all important data and sent to all the teachers with whom the student is enrolled or the counseling teacher should see that the student's folder is available to all his teachers and that they are encouraged to use it.

3. *Test data of the kind which will help the student to plan his educational experience more intelligently and realistically should be given to the student.*

The acceptance of self-appraisal by the students as one important aspect of evaluation implies a recognition on their part of the weaknesses and strengths which evaluation data reveal. Realistic acceptance of limitations may save many heartaches and direct student efforts into more productive enterprises. Weaknesses which can be corrected also need to be pointed out to students. Likewise, they should be told where they have achieved success and wherein their strengths and abilities lie. Knowledge of such success and an insight into their abilities often open up new possibilities and spur individuals on to greater effort and achievement. Research studies have shown that when test results are given to students they make far greater progress than when such information is withheld.[2] Too frequently tests are given, data are collected, the results filed, and the student is no wiser than he was before as to his success or failure, his strengths or his shortcomings. Although harm can be done when teachers who do not understand either the meaning or the limitation of data attempt to interpret them to students and parents, and when undue finality is assigned to data, students have a right to know the results of their effort and to have the results interpreted to them intelligently and objectively. When one has a medical examination, he expects the doctor to tell him what has been learned about his health. All teachers, and particularly the counseling teacher, should likewise be taught to make intelligent interpretation of evaluation data, to know what evidence to reveal and what to withhold, and to know the form in which it can best be given to students and parents. Intelligence ratings, for example, should usually be given as levels, not scores. Strengths

as well as weaknesses should be pointed out. Usually it is a good technique from a mental-hygiene point of view to mention the strengths which the data reveal before stressing weaknesses and shortcomings.

4. *Individual folders to which the student has access so that he may collect and use the data for self-appraisal should be kept by the counseling or general-education teacher and should accompany the student as he progresses through the school.*

Social-studies teachers often desire to keep a file of individual folders in which confidential material may be placed; but all the data which are of value to the student in seeing his own progress should be assembled, in a folder to which he has access. Much of the information placed in the folder can be collected and filed by the student. His corrected themes, a record of his projects, a summary of his test data, his reading record, questionnaires which he has filled out, time charts, leisure-time reports, and the like would all go into the folder. The teacher, at the end of the semester or year, would have the responsibility of going through the folder and determining what materials were of value in showing aspects of the student's growth and what needed to be discarded. Otherwise the folder would become too bulky and the materials too voluminous to be of use to the succeeding teacher to whom the folder would be sent.

5. *Data should be recorded and reported to teachers and students in a manner which they can understand and in the form which is most useful to them.*

Too often teachers do not understand test scores after they have been collected and reported back to them. Raw scores, or percentages, often have little value unless the teacher has some basis for knowing whether the student's score is good or bad in terms of the test and of the achievement of other students of similar age and experience. Care, therefore, should be used, if tests are scored in the research or counselor's office, to see that teachers understand the meaning of the scores and to insure that the population on which the norms were established is given. When new tests are used and when data are presented in unfamiliar terms, staff conferences should be held in which the tests and the data are explained and interpretations drawn so that the scores can be used intelligently.

Techniques for Summarizing and Recording Evaluation Data

Cumulative Records

Of the techniques used for recording and summarizing evaluation data, by far the most comprehensive and detailed is the cumulative

record. This is a systematic record of all the important data which the school has gathered about an individual during his entire school career. It follows him from the first grade throughout all the grades in which he is enrolled and from school to school. Usually the records are kept on cards, booklets, or folders printed especially for the purpose; and the data, as they are collected, are entered in the proper spaces as indicated on the form. When folders are used, additional data which are hard to tabulate and summarize may be inserted.

The type of data which are kept on the permanent record should, of course, reflect the school's objectives and should record evidence of the student's progress in terms of them. Because quantitative data in the form of test scores, grades, credits earned, days absent or tardy, and the like are easy to obtain and record, cumulative data cards have tended to emphasize them and to omit other important information about the student, such as his interests, habits, family background, work experiences, personality characteristics, and outstanding achievements. These should also be included if the records are to be of much value in helping teachers diagnose needs and counsel students.

Since objectives of schools differ, the forms for keeping cumulative records also differ. Many schools have, however, adapted to their local situation the form developed by the American Council on Education.[3] Others have made use of the one arranged by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals;[4] and schools in California and elsewhere have liked the form developed by the California Association of Secondary-School Principals.[5] The Progressive Education Association developed a more flexible form to be used by the schools in the Eight-Year Study in recommending students to college.[6] While this was not designed as a cumulative record folder, it could serve that purpose. It provides among other things for a summarization of the data from the Behavior Description Card[7] which the Committee on Reports and Records devised for recording a student's progress during his stay in the secondary school.

Although the forms differ, most cumulative records include:

1. Personal data—date and place of birth, sex, race, nationality, school entrance and withdrawal date, attendance record, etc.
2. Family and cultural background
3. Marks in school subjects
4. Records of significant experiences—extracurricular, work, and cultural
5. Health record
6. Standardized test scores or profiles
7. Interests
8. Special talents

9. Personality descriptions and ratings
10. Significant comments from interviews and anecdotal records

The unique value of the cumulative record lies in the fact that information about a specific trait is more significant when a systematic record is kept over a number of years than when only one observation is made and recorded. Furthermore, a much more accurate picture of a student is obtained from evidence on many aspects of his personality than from studying one or two traits in isolation. Thus, "the gathering of many facts about an individual over a long period of time combines the genetic and clinical approaches used by psychologists in studying individual problem cases"[8] and provides a better basis for diagnosis and guidance.

The real value of a permanent record, however, depends primarily upon the use which teachers and counselors make of the information assembled. *Segel states that such records are useful at the elementary* and junior high school level:

a) In the study of the needs of pupils in an instructional field.
b) In the discovering of behavior difficulties and failures.
c) In the identification of gifted pupils.
d) To assist in the discovery of special abilities.
e) In furnishing a basis for advising a pupil who wishes to leave school during or at the end of the junior high school.

In addition, at the high-school and college level, they are useful:

a) In determining the type of educational course which best fits the student.
b) In advising the student in the choice of schools when graduating from a school or otherwise transferring from one school to another.
c) In advising the student as to the efficient use of his time.
d) In placement.[9]

Many schools which keep cumulative records forward a photostatic copy of the complete record to the college in which the student enrolls on the assumption that the college will be better able to advise the student and to help him plan his college course in terms of his previous training, needs, interests, aptitudes, abilities, maturity, and unique personality traits. Thus, the record may go with the student even after he leaves the secondary school.

Cumulative records are now so widely used and are so much a part of an evaluation program which stresses individual growth and development that few persons would question their value. Nevertheless the cautions mentioned by Eurich and Wrenn[10] should be heeded. No cumulative record presents a complete picture of the individual, and no social-education teacher or counselor should consider that his

responsibility for understanding the student ends with his familiarity with the data recorded on them. Knowing the student involves the continued search for and interpretation of additional information. Moreover, teachers are apt to consider data recorded as final and absolute and to classify a student in terms of the data without verifying the evidence or seeking new data which may either alter or modify the picture. Cumulative records are valuable and useful because they present the most complete picture of the student which the school is likely to possess. But it should always be remembered that they give at best only fragmentary data about any student and, because the data are incomplete, they may not give a true and accurate picture.

Individual Profiles of Achievement, Interests, or Attitudes

Although individual profiles in no way take the place of the cumulative record, they furnish an excellent technique for summarizing and recording quantitative data. In most cases, individual profiles are of greatest value when made by the student and summarized by him. Many standardized achievement tests provide space on the front of the test for summarizing the results in graphic form. Students who draw their own profiles are thus able to see their own strengths and weaknesses and to recognize their needs in terms of lacks or failures.

Interests and attitudes can also be summarized by means of profiles. The graph presented on page 411 was adapted from one designed by Sheviakov for the *Interest Index* developed by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study.[11] The graph is unique in that by using the bottom for the base line from which to plot the percentage of likes and the top for the base line from which to plot the percentage of dislikes, it shows not only the percentages of likes and dislikes expressed for each area, but also the amount of indifference. The area below the solid line represents the amount of "likes" expressed, the area above the dotted line the amount of "dislikes," and the area between the two lines the amount of indifference. If the lines drawn represent the medium like and dislike expressed by the group, each student can superimpose his individual profile of interests upon that of the group by using either a line or a bar graph. The students can then summarize their interests by translating the quantitative scores into a meaningful description from which they and the teacher can plan educational experiences to meet their needs.

Profiles are particularly useful for summarizing data when several subscores are drawn from a test. They are also useful in keeping a cumulative record of achievement over a period of time. In fact, the test data on some cumulative records are kept in graphic form.

Likes

Social Studies
Fine Arts
Music
Industrial Arts
Sports
Reading
Mathematics
Writing
Home Arts
Science
Leadership
Personal-Social
Manipulative
Total

LIKES   INDIFFERENCE   DISLIKES

Dislikes

——— Likes   - - - - Dislikes
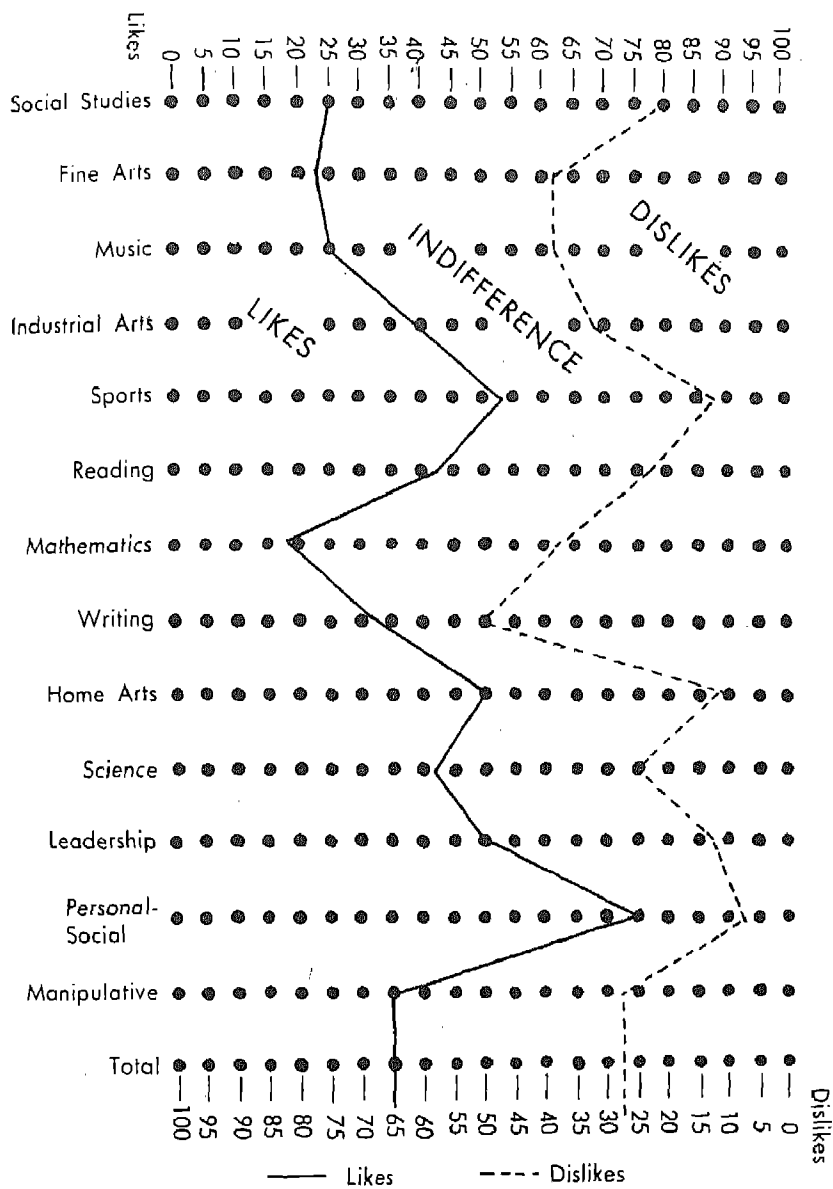
Student _____ Age _____ Sex _____

School _____ Grade _____

Date _____ Test _____

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This, of course, is possible only when scores are converted into percentiles, scaled scores, or age or grade norms, or when the scores from one test can be compared with scores from another.

Individual Summary Sheets

When many tests are given and when individual folders are kept for each student, it is often useful to have an individual summary sheet on which test data may be assembled and strengths and weaknesses revealed. This type of sheet is particularly useful when the data from several tests are not in the same form and profiles are impossible.

If such a summary sheet is used, it should, of course, be made to include all the tests which are to be given a particular group and if possible should show progress between two or more test periods. The summary sheet on page 413 was developed for Bryant Lower Division High School of Salt Lake City to be used with the Articulating Unit[12] participating in the Social Education Investigation. The chart is so arranged that it shows whether an individual's score on a test is above or below that made by 75, 50, or 25 per cent of his classmates. Thus a student can see at a glance where he stands in his class, what his weaknesses are, and where he needs to put his greatest effort.

The techniques for recording books read, writing done, and projects completed and for summarizing anecdotal records referred to in Chapter 14 are for summarizing and recording data as well as for collecting evidence. Kept in the student's folder over a period of years, they reveal growth as well as changing interests and values. Similar techniques could be used to summarize leisure-time interests; e.g., magazines and newspapers read, movies seen, and radio programs heard. The data from each of the questionnaires used would need to be summarized in such a way that they would reveal the quality as well as the amount of participation. The data from the magazine questionnaire might, for example, be summarized on a sheet which recorded the amount and kind of magazine reading done during each semester the student was in high school (see chart on p. 414). Similar sheets could be developed for summarizing data from the other questionnaires.

It is necessarily the duty of the social-studies teacher, if he is also a counseling teacher, to see that all important data from the summary sheets which have been assembled in the student's folder are sent to the central office at the end of a school year so that they can be recorded on the permanent record. The folders, of course, stay in the file of the counseling teacher or, if sent to the guidance office at the close of the year, are returned to the counseling teacher at the beginning of the next school year.

BRYANT LOWER DIVISION HIGH SCHOOL

SUMMARY TEST DATA

Entered ....

Age .... At date ....

Name ....

Test   Use of Books and Library   7.3

Form and date ....

	Q3	Mdn	Q1
I Parts of a Book			
II Use of Encyclopedia			
III Use of Dictionary			
IV Sources of Information			
V Use of Card Catalogue			
VI Use of an Index			
VII Use of Readers' Guide			

Test .... Reading Test

Form and date ....

	Q3	Mdn	Q1
Reading Rate			
Reading Comprehension			
Vocabulary			

Test   Interpretation of Data............

Form and Date ....

	Q3	Mdn	Q1
I General Accuracy			
II Accuracy, True-False (A-D)			
I Insufficient Data (U)			
III Errors—Beyond Data			
Too Cautious			
Crude Errors			

Test   Scale of Beliefs............

Form and Date ....

	Liberalism			Con	Unc	Liberalism			Con	Unc
	Q3	Mdn	Q1			Q3	Mdn	Q1		
I Democracy										
II Econ. Relations										
III Labor										
IV Race										
V Nationalism										
VI Militarism										
Total										

Test .... Arithmetic

Form and Date ....

	Q3	Mdn	Q1	Q3	Mdn	Q1
Arithmetic Reasoning						
Arithmetic Calculation						

Test .... Language

Form and Date ....

	Q3	Mdn	Q1	Q3	Mdn	Q1
Capitalization						
Punctuation						
Words and Sentences						
Parts of Speech						
Spelling						
Handwriting						

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Name.. Class..

Instructor..

Date Record Made						
1. Total number of magazines read						
2. Number read regularly						
occasionally						
seldom						
3. Number read in full						
in part						
skimmed						
4. Number of magazines obtained						
at school						
at home						
from friends						
from public library						
from newsstand						
5. Type read most often						
6. Favorite magazine						

* Developed by Hazel LaVonne Frandson, "Diagnosing Student Needs Through a Social Studies Evaluation Program" (unpublished Master's thesis, Stanford University, 1941), p. 189.

Techniques for Interpreting Data

Since learning and behavior are patterned, it is necessary, as has already been pointed out, to see the student as a whole and to see the interrelatedness of all the evidence about him before attempting to diagnose his needs, to discover the causes of his difficulties, or to propose courses of action in guiding and counseling him.

The Modified Case-Study Technique

A modified form of the case-history approach has proved useful in getting a total picture of the student, and, in its simplified form, can be used by classroom teachers. By this technique, all the information about a student is brought together and translated into descriptive terms so that a complete picture is obtained. From the total behavioral pattern revealed, hypotheses are drawn for ways of helping the student. Peter Blos has demonstrated the need for complete case studies if the adolescent is to be understood. He points out "the importance of corroborative evidence and the value of obtaining data from essentially

different sources, such as interviews and teachers' reports."[13] The data used by Blos in writing case histories of adolescents included material available to most classroom teachers—observation and anecdotal materials, written work of the students, physical records, personal data, academic schedules and semester grades, test records, school records, and information gathered through interviews. Most of the material used by Blos can be obtained from the cumulative record or the guidance office; teachers can easily assemble the rest for themselves.

The case study of Jane made by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study shows the value of using evaluation data in diagnosing student needs and the necessity of seeing the total constellation of factors in a student's personality and environment before reaching conclusions about his behavior. In Jane's case, the data from the tests developed by the Evaluation Staff did not coincide with the impressions which the school staff had of the girl. As a result, a case study was made and the increased knowledge which the faculty gained from the case study and from the interpretations of the evaluation data made them cognizant for the first time of her difficulties. Special recommendations were then made for meeting her needs.[14]

Similarly, Frandson points out how an evaluation program can be used in diagnosing student needs. In writing her case studies, she used data collected by means of the following tests and techniques:[15]

Henman-Nelson Test of Mental Ability
Iowa Silent Reading Test
Wrightstone's *Social-Economic Data Sheet*
Interviews with teachers
Cooperative Test of General Proficiency in the Social Studies, Form QR
Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test for High School Students
Progressive Education Association *Nature of Proof Test,* 5.21
Progressive Education Association *Interpretation of Data Test,* 2.51
Progressive Education Association *Social Problems Test,* 1.41
Progressive Education Association *Interest Index,* 8.2a
Progressive Education Association *Scale of Beliefs,* 4.21-4.31
Stanford Social Education Investigation *Library and Sources of Information Test,* Form A
Movie Questionnaire
Questionnaire on Newspaper Reading, Progressive Education Association
Radio Questionnaire
Check List of One Hundred Magazines, Progressive Education Association
Free Reading Reports

The writing of a case history not only involves interpreting the data from each test and changing test scores into meaningful descriptions in terms of the student's objectives, but it also involves bringing together

all the evidence and seeing the forces operating in the student's life which cause him to behave as he does. While it would not be feasible for a teacher to write a detailed case study on all his students, the formal writing of at least one such study helps him to see the importance of looking at all the data, of weighing this bit of evidence against others, of recognizing gaps in the data, and of seeking more information. When data are organized in this way and interpreted carefully, needs stand out more clearly and courses of action for meeting the needs can be recommended more intelligently.

Individual Case Conferences

Another technique for interpreting data found particularly valuable by the teachers in the Stanford Social Education Investigation is the individual case conference. Several of the participating schools schedule time regularly for the study of an individual or a group concerning whom staff consideration will be helpful. Usually these conferences are held at the time of the regular planning or conference period[16] and involve the teachers who have the student in class, the counselor, the psychiatrist if the school has one, the medical adviser or the school nurse, and others of the staff who are interested in the student or the group under discussion. The conference needs to be planned carefully and the data about the student assembled and put into a form easily used and interpreted. Usually the counseling teacher, who theoretically at least knows more about the student than anyone else, presides. Stenographic notes should be taken of additional information which is brought to light as a result of the conference and of recommendations which are made for meeting the student's needs. The assumption underlying the case conference is that the collective judgment of those members of the staff who know a student and are concerned about his welfare is better than the judgment of any one teacher. The conference has value, too, in that the reaction of different teachers to the same individual often helps those who have the student in class to get a different impression of him and to appraise more carefully their own reaction or judgment.

Use of Evaluation Data

How valuable evaluation is as an aid to education, and to classroom teachers in particular, depends on how well it fulfills the functions claimed for it.

1. *Diagnosing Student Needs and Guiding Them More Effectively.*

Any effective use of evaluation data in diagnosis must provide for a shift in student programs to care for maladjustments that may be either

personal or educational in nature. When the diagnosis indicates weaknesses in particular areas or skills that are essential to future growth and development, steps should be taken to guide and recommend the students into courses or units which will help them overcome the deficiency. When the weaknesses are in social and personal relationships, rescheduling may also be necessary. Often, however, the interchange of information among the teachers during the conference period will result in their seeing ways for providing experiences within the present schedule which will lead to happier and more satisfying social relationships. Participation in a well-planned activity program may help some students make more successful social adjustments. Each case requires individual diagnosis and recommendations in terms of the unique pattern of needs which the evidence reveals. The following are examples of how the data from evaluation techniques and instruments may be used in diagnosing student needs, together with recommended courses of action for meeting the needs revealed.[17]

Discovery	*Recommendation*
Subscore on library test revealed student had skill in all phases of library usage except the *Readers' Guide*. Hypotheses: Student had had (1) no opportunity to use *Readers' Guide* and (2) no instruction in its use; (3) school had inadequate library facilities.	Instruction in use of *Readers' Guide* and repeated assignments through the year which would send the student to it to look for material.
Student showed little interest in reading; read very little; quality of his reading poor and juvenile; his reading rate and comprehension above average; his I.Q. average of group; a keen interest in popular music.	Have student prepare and give reports to class on origin of popular songs, with suggestions which would require reading to find materials. Suggest also reading of interesting stories of famous musicians whose music is the inspiration for today's popular songs.
Student shy, few friends, seems uninterested in social life of school. Scores from 8.2*a* and 8.2*b* and 8.2*c* show high likes for school activities, no dislikes; high likes for activities with both boys and girls and almost no dislikes. Hypothesis: Responses on 8.2*b* and 8.2*c* show desire for friends, wishful thinking.	Provide classroom situations where student can work on committees with both boys and girls. Give student tasks in which he can succeed so that he will gain more confidence in himself and have a sense of belongingness in this group.

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2. *Modifying and Changing the School's Program.*

An effective use of an evaluation program should result in a modification of the instructional procedures, the curriculum content and organization, the activity program, and administrative procedures. This implies, of course, a consideration on the part of the total staff of the evidence revealed by the evaluation techniques and the formulation of specific plans for modifying and changing the school's program in the light of the facts discovered. If, for example, the evaluation program uncovered the following facts about the students in a particular school, the staff might recommend specific changes in:[18]

a) Instructional procedures. For example:

Discovery	*Recommendation*
Many of the students were developing interest in problems that could not be satisfied with single texts.	The use of a wide variety of library materials.
Many of the students were developing interest in problems that could not be satisfied in the classroom, in the library, in the laboratory, or any other place in the school.	More use of the community.
Many of the students were developing interest in problems that require information and points of view from many persons.	More use of interviews with other teachers and with other members of the community.
The students tended to be prejudiced; they were not inclined to consider adverse evidence.	In all instruction, attempts should be made to use procedures that emphasize critical, scientific reflective thinking.
Many of the students were deficient in reading, writing, speaking, mathematics, or in all these fields.	a) Special laboratories for the more acute cases. b) Special aid from regular teachers for the less acute cases.
Year after year students at each grade level have tended to exhibit the same general characteristics, but vary greatly with reference to specific interests and needs.	Preplanning for students should be only in terms of the general needs. The program must be flexible enough to take care of both group and individual needs during the year as they are discovered.

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Students improved their learning as teachers discovered ways of relating problems and activities to the interests and felt needs of individual students.

.Greater use of improved techniques in problem-solving.

In each class there was a wide variety of individual needs. The school's philosophy implies a sincere effort to satisfy many of the discovered needs. This requires greatly increased teacher time.

Teachers who have demonstrated ability to do individualized teaching should be granted more time for this purpose. Many "counseling" problems will be solved by this type of teaching.

b) The curriculum. For example:

Discovery

Very few of the students have any concept of the geography of the world and its influence on man and his institutions.

Recommendation

More geographical material will need to be included in their work.

Too many of the students grow up without understanding that the home is a basic institution in the community and in the wider social and economic life.

Have teachers in all fields seek opportunities to emphasize the significance of the home. Present a carefully prepared unit in this field for use on the grade level at which it is most appropriate.

An attitude test reveals that students have a very tolerant and consistent attitude toward other racial and national groups but are uncertain and ambivalent in their attitudes on labor questions.

A unit dealing with labor problems should be included in their program which would help dislodge their prejudices and give them an understanding of labor problems so that they could develop a consistent point of view.

c) The activity programs. For example:

Discovery

A number of students have minor physical defects that can be aided by special exercises.

Recommendation

Establish classes in corrective physical education.

Several students would like to participate in dramatics, but feel they are not good enough for the high-grade plays now receiving public acclaim.

Put on fewer productions for public audiences and more for the benefit of inexperienced performers.

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A number of students need the recognition that goes with election and the experience that goes with holding office.	Develop the policy of holding offices for a semester rather than a year. Furthermore, have more teacher-student committees to consider school policies that have formerly been reserved exclusively for adults.
Many students feel "left out." The range of interests represented by school clubs is limited.	Stimulate the organization of clubs in new areas. Qualification for membership should be interest and ability rather than mere friendship.
Many inexperienced but potentially good writers cannot "make" the present printed publications.	Establish a less pretentious type of publication—possibly a mimeographed sheet—to serve as an outlet for these students.
Some students want and need shop and art facilities in connection with projects in social studies and English. Shop and art have *their own* programs.	Permit students to spend a portion (and occasionally all) of their time in shop and art on projects that have been initiated outside the area.

d) The counseling program. For example:

Discovery	*Recommendation*
The desires, drives, problems, stresses, conflicts which motivate many students have their roots in the home.	Parents should be brought closer to the school *a*) to share in planning for their children *b*) to receive counsel regarding their children.
Many of the children have problems which the regular faculty cannot adequately solve.	The employment of a psychologist *a*) to help with these problems *b*) to develop better insights in the faculty.

3. *Conducting Research Studies.*

An evaluation program should never be confused with a research study even though evaluation data are often useful in carrying on research. Whereas in the former the emphasis is on gathering evidence on the change in student behavior, stress is placed, in the latter, on the procedures being tested rather than on the individuals affected by the procedures. Evaluation instruments may reveal that growth has or has not taken place and what success or failure students are having in terms of certain objectives, but the instruments themselves never tell the cause of such growth, success, or failure. For example, an evaluation

instrument may reveal that students dislike social studies and like manipulative, nonverbal activities, but it does not tell the reason for these likes or dislikes. When evaluation data are to be used to determine cause-and-effect relationships or the effectiveness of certain classroom or administrative procedures, and generalizations are drawn with any degree of certainty, controlled situations must be set up and scientific procedures observed. This was done in carrying on the study on the relative merit of the problems approach in social education as compared with the chronological and topical approaches, reported in Chapter 6. The study would not have been possible without the use of evaluation instruments and techniques; the soundness of the conclusions, however, depended on the care with which the groups were selected, the conditions under which classes were conducted and the tests administered, and the statistical procedures used in treating the data. Likewise, evaluation data made possible the study of personal relationships in the classroom.[19]

Other research studies were carried on during the course of the Stanford Social Education Investigation, in which evaluation data were used. One study explored the relative merit of the two-hour core class conducted by one teacher with that of the block schedule in which one group of students met two consecutive periods for English and social studies and was taught by two teachers who planned together although they taught in separate classrooms; and with the departmental organization in which a group took English and social studies under teachers who did not plan together.[20] Data for the study were gathered by the following tests and inventories: (1) *Terman Group Test of Mental Ability; New Stanford Achievement Test; Pasadena Test of Guidance Information,* Part VI; Progressive Education Association tests: *Use of Books and Libraries,* 7.3, *Interpretation of Data,* 2.71, and *Beliefs about School Life,* 4.6; and Stanford Social Education Investigation *Interest Inventory,* 8.2j; (2) questionnaires filled out by parents, students, and teachers, and self-rating scales; and (3) interviews. The conclusions from the study very definitely favor first the double-period, one-teacher organization, then the coöperatively planned single-period, two-teacher organization, to the strictly two-period departmentalized organization.

Another study investigated the effect which the outbreak of war had on the reading habits of high-school students.[21] The *Check List of One Hundred Magazines* developed by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association was given to eleventh- and twelfth-grade students in the fall of 1941 and repeated in May 1942. So little change took place in the reading habits of the

students that the study concluded that neither the school nor the war had had much effect upon the reading habits of the high-school students studied.

A third study dealt with discovering the suitability of the community as the problem area around which to organize the educational experiences of seventh-grade students. In this study an experimental class was set up; pre-tests were given to discover the needs and interests of the students; the objectives were carefully defined in behavioral terms; a new curriculum using the community as the basis for the subject-matter content was developed to meet the needs and interests revealed by the evaluation data; and, finally, end-tests were given to appraise the changes in behavior which had taken place during the school year. No attempt was made in this study to compare the relative merit of community problems with any other subject-matter content. The study did demonstrate, however, that seventh-grade students were interested in problems of their community and that, with the use of the community as a center around which to organize learning experiences, it was possible to bring about desirable changes in student behavior.[22]

4. *Reporting Progress to Parents.*

Reports to parents should (1) inform them of the progress of the student; (2) inform the student of his progress and point out his strengths and weaknesses; (3) form a basis for promotion; (4) furnish data for the permanent record; and (5) secure closer coöperation between the school and the home. If the objectives of the school are to be taken seriously by teachers, parents, and students, then the report of progress must be in terms of the school's objectives and the items appearing on the report should encompass those objectives. Since a list of objectives stated in behavioral terms is often quite extensive, reports which include them all tend to become too long. For this reason, some schools have included on the report only the categorical headings and have accompanied the report with a supplementary analysis explaining the behavioral meaning of each item on which the student is evaluated.

When reports are based on the achievement status of the student as compared with other members of his group or with that of other children of the same age and grade level, the report is usually made in terms of a percentage grade or, as is now more commonly done, according to a five-point scale. The assumption underlying the use of the five-point scale is that students in a classroom follow somewhat the pattern of the normal probability curve so that approximately 7 per cent receive an *A*, 24 per cent a *B*, 38 per cent a *C*, 24 per cent a *D*, and 7 per cent an *F*. Grading by means of the normal curve assumes that

all classes are alike. Its use in a class of superior students would result in condemning some to low grades and even failure in spite of the excellency of their work. The use of a scale for grading also encourages competition of the worst sort among students. Working for grades, cheating, "getting by," and "apple polishing" are all encouraged when grades are used as the motivating factor and when students are pitted against one another. Some schools, or teachers within the school, have carried marking to the extreme by adding *plus* and *minus* to the grades so .that instead of a five-point scale they use a thirteen-point scale. Usually, when percentage grades or a form of the five-point scale is used, the mark indicates achievement in subject matter only and indicates the amount of factual information which the student has been able to memorize and recall in a test situation.

An acceptance of the principles of evaluation set forth here demands a different form of reporting to parents from that just described. If the evaluation program is concerned with the gathering of evidence on the progress which students have made in terms of the school's objectives, then the reports to parents should be based on the student's growth and achievement in terms of his own ability and should report this growth in all the objectives which the school considers desirable. Since it is impossible to average marks on different behaviors or aspects of personality development and arrive at a composite score, a progress report which conveys to parents and students adequate information about the student's progress in specific behaviors must mark each behavior separately.

Probably the most desirable report to parents is a letter written by each teacher about each student in his class stating his weaknesses and strengths, his successes and failures, and what recommendations the teacher makes for further improvement. However, in a public school situation where the teacher load is heavy, this is practically impossible. When it has been tried, it has usually resulted in stereotyped letters which were not worth the time and effort it took to write them. Consequently, many schools which have attempted to devise a more satisfactory report to parents have compromised with a list of objectives either to be checked in the appropriate column or to be marked with a symbol which indicates the extent of progress made by the student during the period of observation.

Reports used by three of the schools in the Investigation are reproduced in the Appendix to show how the reports make use of the school's objectives and the type of symbols with which the schools are experimenting. In each instance a separate report is made by each teacher so that the student has a card for each class in which he is enrolled. No

attempt is made to average the marks given by various teachers on "self-direction," for instance, and thus arrive at one common grade, nor is a composite grade given in any class by attempting to average the marks on various aspects of behavior as exhibited in that class. In each school the card is accompanied, when the report goes out at the close of the first term, by an explanation of the items evaluated.

The number of reports sent home varies from school to school, but the most common practice is to send home a monthly or a six weeks' report. The trend, however, seems to be in the direction of fewer and more extensive reports, supplemented by unsatisfactory notices in cases where the student's work is noticeably weak. The teachers in the Investigation came to the conclusion that since separate progress reports were made by each teacher, uniformity did not need to be maintained in making reports. Rather, they agreed that in place of sending reports home at a specific time it would be better to make a report at the completion of a unit of work or whenever it seemed most desirable.[23]

When schools change their method of reporting progress to parents and indicate growth or lack of growth in behaviors other than understanding of subject matter or skill in communication and manipulation of tools, they need to be certain that they have the evidence on hand from which they can make a report. The value of a comprehensive and well-developed evaluation program thus becomes increasingly evident. Without such evidence, parents are likely to challenge not only the marks given but also the wisdom of the new report.

Also, when reports are made on progress rather than status and when the report is made on all the objectives and not just on subject-matter achievement, the basis on which to make promotion and the relationship of the progress report and the cumulative record bother many administrators. It has already been pointed out that the cumulative record should be a complete record of the student's growth in all desired behaviors and should be kept in the same symbols as those used in making the report to parents. When reports are made in one type of symbols and records are kept in another, confusion results both in the minds of the teachers making the report and in the attitude of parents and students toward the report which they have received.

Promotion undoubtedly should be made in accordance with the judgment of the teacher in consultation with the parents and counselor as to what is best for the student. Even the student who has shown considerable growth in his understanding of algebra may not be ready for geometry and, although given credit in algebra, his recommendation for more advanced mathematics should depend on the teacher's judg-

ment of his ability to cope with more difficult problems. Recommendation for college should be made on the same basis. Thoughtful judgment on the part of the faculty of a student's preparation for college work and his readiness for it should be a more adequate index of his fitness to enter college than the grades now used as a basis for admission. The varying standards for grading which exist among schools and among teachers within the same school have long shown their inadequacy. A "recommendation for college" from the school, backed by the evidence from the evaluation program as reported on the cumulative record, should give the colleges and universities the information which they need.

5. *Gaining Community Support.*

Likewise, schools which want community coöperation will find a comprehensive evaluation program a definite aid in presenting the school's work to the public. People are usually skeptical of new things which they do not understand. However anxious parents are that their children have better educational advantages than they had, they feel more secure and more certain of what is happening at school when the traditional pattern is followed, when the course of study adheres to subjects with which they are familiar, and when the reports do not vary from the long-established form. Whenever a school attempts to modify its program to provide more adequately for the needs and interests of its students, it should assume the responsibility not only of gathering evidence on the effect of the new program in producing the desired change in the behavior of its students but also of giving this evidence to the public so that they, too, may know the reason for the changing curriculum and may learn of the success of the new program in producing better educated, better adjusted, and more competent citizens for the community.

Conclusion

The justification for any evaluation program thus lies in the use which is made of the data collected in diagnosing students' needs, in modifying and changing the school's program to meet those needs, in conducting research studies for the improvement of the school's program, in reporting progress to students and parents, and in gaining community support. The giving of tests and the collection of data are of no value unless they help teachers and students to plan educational experiences more intelligently so that the school's program will bring about the changes in the behavior pattern of youth which seem necessary and desirable if young people are to become effective citizens capable of solving personal and social problems successfully.

THE TEACHER OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Characteristics of the Good Teacher

THE QUALITY of social education depends finally on the teacher. Hence the improvement of social learning can result only from the improve-ment of instruction by well-qualified teachers, using adequate materials in a favorable environment, assisted and supported by school adminis-trators and other educational workers. As has been stated in Chapter 1 of this volume, the major national reports on the social studies have stressed the need for a more careful selection and preparation of teachers. Recently, special emphasis has been placed upon in-service education because of a recognition of the importance of providing assistance to the experienced teacher on the job.

Several attempts have been made to determine the characteristics of the effective teacher. One of the best of these in the field of the social studies concluded that the essential qualities for a teacher of the social studies are (1) reverence for truth, (2) intelligent optimism, (3) social altruism, (4) sympathy, (5) impartiality, (6) interpretive mind, (7) progressiveness, (8) curiosity, (9) culture, and (10) imagina-tion.[1] While the studies of teacher effectiveness are somewhat incon-clusive, James Michener, after reviewing those available, decided that "unusual success in teaching is usually compounded of five elements":

1. A positive philosophy of education
2. Sufficient control of subject matter
3. Varied methods of teaching
4. Knowledge of children
5. Good teaching personality[2]

These might be summarized by saying that the good teacher knows his subject matter and has something to teach, knows and likes children and youth, knows the nature and function of the public school, has a reservoir of teaching procedures and materials, and has a personality which makes him an effective leader in the classroom.

In an attempt to define teaching competence in terms of classroom behavior so as to make in-service education more effective, the staff of the Stanford Social Education Investigation described the effective teacher of social education as one who:

1. Formulates objectives in behavioral terms.
2. Guides the teaching process in the light of the objectives formulated.
3. Uses techniques of evaluation effectively.
4. Is aware of the personality needs of adolescents.
5. Attempts to help adolescents meet their personality needs.
6. Makes use of the problems approach.
7. Shares the selection and planning of units with students.
8. Guides the pupil-teacher planning process with skill and effectiveness.
9. Guides unit development toward the drawing of conclusions based on the process of reflective thinking.
10. Uses a wide variety of materials.
11. Departs from the sequence or course of study when it seems in the interest of the class to do so.
12. Establishes and maintains friendly personal relationships with students.[3]

These behaviors, if accepted as desirable, provide a basis for pre-service and in-service education and for appraising the effectiveness of teaching.

Pre-Service Education

Social-studies teachers require special training. It is most unfortunate that the attitude exists in some schools that anyone can teach the social studies, that all one needs is a textbook and a head start on one's students. Obviously, such a characterization does not apply to the kind of social education envisioned in this book. The task of the social-studies teacher is of crucial importance; the material with which he has to deal is often controversial and difficult to understand; and the building of social competence requires a compounding of intelligence, knowledge, experience, and the ability to work with others. Able young men and women should be recruited for the field of social education early in their college training; they should be carefully appraised and screened against high standards by faculties in professional education and the social sciences; and they should pursue a program of studies including the social sciences, sciences, literature, philosophy, the arts, and professional education. In other words, they should have a sound general education, competency in their area of specialization, adequate professional preparation, and a command of the fundamental skills and abilities required for success in their work.

The Social Sciences

The prime requisite of the social-studies teacher is an understanding of human society—of man in his relations with other men, of the origin and development of human culture, of economic and political life, of man's struggles to achieve the good, the beautiful, and the true. Hence, social-studies teachers should have as thorough an understanding as possible of the content covered by:

1. History—including surveys of United States and world history.
2. Economics—including a basic course and the study of contemporary economic problems.
3. Political science—including a basic course, the study of American and comparative governments, and a survey course of contemporary international relations.
4. Sociology—a basic course and the study of contemporary social problems.
5. Geography—a survey course in human geography.
6. Anthropology—a survey course in cultural anthropology.

Knowledge of Human Growth and Development and of Man's Relation to the Physical World

The social-studies teacher should have a knowledge of the nature of human growth and development, of man's relation to and dependence on the nonhuman environment, and of the place of science in modern life. Ideally this would include basic courses in psychology, biology, physiology and hygiene, physics, and chemistry. A general survey course in science such as that offered at the University of Chicago and elsewhere is excellent for teachers.

Broad General Education

History, properly studied, is a fertile source of values. The social-studies teacher, however, should have not only a thorough understanding of history and the other social sciences but also a broad general education, including experiences in literature, art, music, and philosophy. Knowledge and appreciation of literature and the arts provide a basis for developing values, content for use in instruction, a deeper understanding of historical and contemporary cultures, and rich resources for the development of enduring interests and the wholesome use of leisure time. As has been emphasized in many places in this volume, the arts are important resources in social education. The study of philosophy and ethics is of signal importance in the development of a sound philosophy of education and life and gives direction and meaning to the work of the teacher.

The teacher of the social studies needs the ability to express himself

well in speech and in writing. He needs the ability to read rapidly with understanding and comprehension. Whenever possible, a knowledge of a foreign language or languages is desirable.

Professional Education

The teacher of the social studies needs not only a personal philosophy and a knowledge of man, of man's relation to nature, and of man's relation to man, but also a knowledge of child growth and development, of public education, and of the materials and procedures needed by the effective teacher. This book has been a survey of curriculum and instruction in the social studies. In addition to courses in this area, social-studies teachers should study educational sociology and psychology, principles and procedures in the general area of secondary education; also they should have extensive experience in community participation, the opportunity to observe schools in operation, and experience in student teaching. Wherever possible, an internship is desirable as a part of pre-service education.

Prospective teachers of the social studies have a particular responsibility to participate actively in social affairs in their colleges and communities. The knowledge of social relations gained from books needs to be clarified and enriched by the insight, ability, and sense of value that come from direct experience in social activities. Interests should be broad, and, wherever possible, the study of literature and the arts should be accompanied by creative expression in these fields.

Obviously, not all the suggestions made above can be followed in the training of social-studies teachers. They can be approached, however, in a state—for example, California, where five years of college work are required for teaching in the secondary school. Since it is impossible to gain the desired knowledge, abilities, and values completely in pre-service education, the prospective teacher should, within the program of study recommended by the college he attends and in consultation with an able adviser, build a master plan of study, select courses and extracurricular activities judiciously, work diligently, and live fully. Then through the process of in-service education effectiveness can be increased on the job.[4]

In-Service Education

The greatest hope for the improvement of social education lies in effective in-service education. Social-studies teachers have a responsibility to continue to study and improve themselves on the job. The field of human relations is so broad and complex, and social change is taking place at such a rapid rate, that the achievement and maintenance

of the social understanding and competence necessary to be an effective teacher of the social studies require constant vigilance and diligence. Among the types of experience that teachers have found helpful in furthering their professional development are (1) a planned reading program, (2) community participation, (3) travel, (4) graduate study, (5) workshops, (6) participation in local in-service education programs, (7) professional service, and (8) membership in professional organizations.

A Planned Reading Program

The extent of published materials is so great that only a planned reading program will enable a social-studies teacher to keep abreast of developments in the social sciences, professional education, and current events. *Social Education* magazine, the official journal of the National Council for the Social Studies, is the best single source of reading material for the social-studies teacher. It provides articles of timely interest in method and content and has special departments such as "Notes and News" of developments in the social studies, "Pamphlets and Government Publications," and "Sight and Sound in Social Studies." The book-review section provides a ready guide to current publications. *The Social Studies* magazine and *The Journal of Geography* also contain materials helpful to social-studies teachers. Whenever possible, teachers should read scholarly journals in the social sciences, and also as widely as time permits in news magazines, magazines of opinion, scholarly journals, and literary magazines.

A careful reading of the daily newspapers with special attention to international, national, state, and local affairs is essential for effective teaching of the social studies. Where available, newspapers of national and international significance such as the New York *Times, Christian Science Monitor,* the New York *Herald Tribune,* and the *Manchester Guardian* should be read on important issues.

Information about important current books can be found in the book-review sections and the advertisements of the periodicals. A planned reading program stressing the areas taught, broad social trends and problems, biographies, the classics in the social sciences and literature, developments in the field of social education, and special interests can be devised by the teacher. Edgar Wesley has provided assistance in this task in his *Reading Guide for Social Studies Teachers.*[5] A planned reading program not only enables reading to be more systematic and fruitful, but it also adds interest and zest by deepening insights and enriching knowledge in particular fields that have special significance for the improvement of social-studies instruction.

Community Participation

The use of community resources in instruction has been discussed in Chapter 12 of this volume. In this section the emphasis is on community participation as it affects in-service education. It goes without saying that a social-studies teacher cannot be truly effective unless he knows through experience the social life of the community in which he lives and teaches—the social life that shapes, in large part, the attitudes of the students in his classes and sets the problems that cause them concern and spur them to action.

The teacher in America has tended to be isolated and depreciated in many communities. The situation, however, has improved in spite of the stereotypes of teachers which are often the butts of ridicule in newspaper cartoons, in motion pictures, and on the radio. The improvement in the social position of the teacher has resulted from more careful selection, better preparation, higher salaries, stronger organization, and more professional spirit. In many communities teachers have become leaders in coördinating councils, service clubs, patriotic societies, and even as members of city councils. While these instances of community leadership by teachers are less common than they should be, it is encouraging that they are increasing.

Social-studies teachers have a special responsibility to participate in community life. Much can be learned by observing community life; listening to speeches in political campaigns and other types of public addresses; using local libraries, museums, and recreational facilities; reading local newspapers; listening to local radio programs; and attending and participating in local music, art, and dramatic programs. Such participation is related directly to competence in social education. Just as important is the fact that social-studies teachers, trained as they are in the social sciences and specializing in social relations as a career, have something to contribute to community leadership. They can help the community to clarify social issues, understand social situations, and use accurate knowledge in the solution of social problems. They can help define the values of American democracy and reveal violations of them; they can give positive leadership in helping the community to realize such ideals as respect for the personalities and infinite value of all individuals, the use of coöperation and reason in the solution of social problems, the exercise of civil liberties, and the assumption of civic responsibility by all.

In order to assume community leadership the teacher must identify himself with the community in which he lives and works, be friendly with its citizens, gain the respect of his fellowmen, join community

organizations that further his ideals, and be willing to sacrifice his time and to use his training and ability in rendering community service. In all types of community participation the teacher should regard the practice of sound professional ethics and the maintenance and development of public support for the school as sacred trusts. A positive interpretation of the work of the school, of other teachers, and of students is of profound importance. Equally important is a pride in being a member of the education profession and an attitude toward others which expresses the highest regard for the good and the true.

One group of recommendations concerning the relation of the teacher to the community appeared in *School and Community*.[0] These recommendations were:

1. Study the school and the community.
2. Make a wide variety of social contacts with people of different ages, races, nationalities, classes, political and religious beliefs.
3. Share common interests with a wide circle of friends, many of whom are outside the teaching profession.
4. Become acquainted with community agencies and their leaders, and demonstrate your interest in coöperating with them.
5. Know your state and regional resources.
6. Attend public meetings in the community, talk with people, introduce yourself, express your appreciation of what others do for community welfare. Appear in public!
7. Participate with others in studying community needs and attacking community problems, particularly those which bear upon the education of boys and girls.
8. Become well versed in techniques of scientific thinking, and apply your knowledge to the handling of controversial issues in your classroom as well as in the community outside. Remain objective!
9. Make careful study of the age group which you are teaching. Visit pupils in their homes, enter into their recreational life, observe them in public places and in work situations. Know your students!
10. Become a legal resident of the community and vote in local, state, and national elections.

Community participation of the type envisaged in these recommendations is one of the most effective means of in-service education for social-studies teachers. It increases social knowledge and understanding, strengthens character and ideals, and increases the competence to develop like behavior in the young.

Travel

One of the greatest advantages of living in a technological age is the increased opportunity to travel. Improvements in transportation have been an important factor in producing an interdependent world, and,

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fortunately, they provide greater opportunity to travel in order to understand that world better. The social-studies teacher has a responsibility for developing world understanding, appreciation, and coöperation. Hence, his interests and understandings need to be expanded until he comprehends all peoples and places in an interdependent world. Community life itself cannot be truly understood unless it is studied as a part of an immense web of world relationships. All these factors and many more make travel one of the best means of personal self-development by social-studies teachers.

A good plan is to expand from the local community as a center. By purchasing the volume of the "American Guide Series"[7] that covers his state, a teacher can secure a concise description of the geography, history, and culture of his state and a guide for visiting its places of interest and studying its social life. Weekend tours by automobile can be planned to cover the state and region, and vacations can be used for traveling to all parts of the United States.

Travel within the United States should be augmented by visits to other countries. It is already possible to travel in Canada and Mexico by automobile, and the opening of the Alaskan and Pan-American highways makes it possible to tour much of the Western Hemisphere by motor car. The great increase in ocean shipping and reduced rates in air transportation will extend greatly the opportunities for world travel.

One of the best ways to visit a foreign country is to join a planned tour that is educational as well as recreational in purpose.[8] Another possibility is to go to another country to study, or as an exchange teacher. The Institute of International Education[9] and other organizations in the United States have been active in furthering international travel and study and in arranging for the exchange of teachers. The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is also working to increase the opportunity for travel, study, and international service by teachers.

Some social-studies teachers have combined travel with photography and writing. Both still and motion pictures not only provide remembrances of travel but also are excellent teaching materials, enabling the teacher to take a visual as well as an auditory account of his trips into the classroom. Kodachrome slides are especially useful. A few teachers have developed sets of slides from their travels which they have sold for school use. In this way profit can be combined with pleasure and education. Another way to use travel experiences is to write about them. The study of history, geography, and contemporary culture can often be assisted by the use of materials that teachers have written as a result of travel.[10]

Graduate Study

The high qualifications required by effective teachers of the social studies make graduate study almost essential to adequate preparation. The trend is to require five years of college and university work for a secondary-school credential, and certainly every social-studies teacher should have at least one year of graduate study. Graduate study provides an opportunity to: (1) motivate and focus in-service education; (2) expand the undergraduate program of the student by added study in the social sciences, cultural subjects, languages, and general education; (3) develop depth of knowledge and understanding in some specialized area of the social sciences; (4) provide for increased specialization and special competence in professional education; (5) gain experience and competence in the use of research techniques and in the writing and publication of research results and other professional papers; (6) expand professional acquaintances and associations and gain stimulation for thought and action; (7) enrich personality through a wide range of cultural experiences; (8) develop skills needed for increased professional services; and (9) prepare for professional advancement.[11]

Some teachers prefer to do graduate study without working for an advanced degree; however, more personal and professional value probably is secured by the greater coherence and motivation that come from following a definite program leading toward a degree. The degree, too, is a professional badge which certifies to work done and competence achieved. The first degree toward which a teacher should work is the Master of Arts. This may be taken in one of the social sciences or in the general field of education. Above the Master of Arts are the Master of Education, the Doctor of Education, and the Doctor of Philosophy degrees. The Master of Education generally is an intermediate degree which stands for professional competence in a particular area above the level of the Master of Arts. It is granted by only a few universities. The Doctor of Education degree has become recognized as representing the competence required for leadership positions in education. The Doctor of Philosophy degree is a certificate of competence in the area of research and academic specialization. It is generally regarded as a desirable degree for those who wish to become leaders in research or in an academic field, such as the teaching of economics in a junior college, college, or university. Before planning to work for a higher degree, especially above the Master of Arts level, an individual should make a careful assessment of his abilities and potentialities. Success in earning an advanced degree requires a high level of intelligence and self-discipline.

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Beneficial graduate study results from careful planning. A social-studies teacher who is contemplating graduate work should consider and appraise his previous education, experience, individual strengths and weaknesses, career objectives, and the kinds of competence required in the area in which he is working or for which he plans to prepare. Assistance and guidance can be secured from one's principal, superintendent, and other educational leaders in the local area. Special care should be exercised in the selection of the university in which graduate study is planned; the selection should be made on the basis of the needs and objectives of the student balanced against the resources of the institution. At times it is desirable to do graduate study in more than one university in order to achieve the objectives toward which the student is working. After a student has arrived at the institution where he is to do graduate work, the early selection of an adviser and extensive consultation with him are desirable.

In many areas extension courses offer teachers an opportunity to do graduate study while on the job. However, some institutions of higher learning do not permit credit earned in extension courses to be used in the fulfillment of requirements for degrees.

The Workshop

An innovation in graduate study that has developed in recent years is the summer workshop. The workshop began experimentally during the middle 1930's;[12] it has now become a well-established feature of summer-school programs, and graduate-study credit is given for it. The reason for the success of the workshop technique is that it gives teachers and administrators an opportunity to work on practical problems and to prepare programs and materials for local use, under the direction of competent leaders and with adequate library facilities and other resources available. The Stanford Social Education Investigation utilized workshops as one of its major in-service education techniques.[13]

The participants in the Investigation workshops felt that the most desirable features of a workshop are (1) freedom from course requirements; (2) opportunities to work with teachers from other school systems; (3) individual help from the staff; (4) opportunity to work on one's own problems; and (5) opportunity to become acquainted with a wide variety of teaching materials. Another aspect of workshops that appeals to experienced teachers is that major policies generally are determined by a policy committee selected from the participants. The atmosphere is informal and friendly. The competence required for developing democratic behavior in students can be acquired by teachers working together democratically in a situation that stimulates

study, thought, and the production of usable educational materials.

Some projects which teachers bring to workshops to develop are the construction of units, the revision of report forms, the making of bibliographies, the construction of evaluation instruments, the stating of objectives, and modification of programs of study. Workshops are organized usually into (a) general meetings to present content material, develop general understandings, discuss common problems, and develop common principles and policies; (b) interest groups to consider special needs and interests; (c) work groups to develop units, materials, evaluation instruments, and other curricular materials; (d) individual work; and (e) conferences with staff members and resource leaders so that participants can obtain assistance on their individual problems and projects. When groups of teachers from the same schools attend a workshop, provision is made for school-group meetings. In addition, workshops generally contain a laboratory of content and professional materials and an opportunity to preview motion pictures, observe other visual aids, and listen to recordings. Recreational and social activities, including opportunities for creative expression in the arts, often are included in workshop programs in order to enrich and add enjoyment to workshop experiences. Workshops have proved so successful in in-service education that many school systems now make them an important part of local programs of in-service development.

Local In-Service Education Programs

Faculty meetings.—Many school systems have extensive programs of in-service development, and almost all have some form of in-service professional activity. The most common form of professional activity is the faculty meeting. While many faculty meetings lack vitality and have a tendency to become routine, they can become one of the most effective means of educational improvement. The faculty meeting can become a center for policy-making, for group thought about common school problems, and for keeping abreast of professional, social, and cultural developments. To be effective, faculty meetings need to be planned over an extended period of time. The major problems concerning the school can be defined and analyzed and meetings assigned to consider them. A good technique is to appoint a committee to study each problem and o report and lead discussion at the regular faculty meeting. A school faculty can keep informed about major developments by having reports by committees at assigned faculty meetings on such topics as health, international relations, research on adolescent problems, plastics, developments in electronics, population and vocational trends, and recent fiction. Social-studies teachers might take responsibility for topics that lie within their field, while science, physical

education, English, and other departments would do likewise. Brief annotated bibliographies could be prepared and distributed. Well-qualified outside speakers might be utilized when available.

Group meetings.—In addition to all-school faculty meetings, departmental, grade-level, and committee meetings offer extensive opportunities for in-service development. Departmental meetings can be used to work directly on the improvement of the school's program in social studies; grade-level meetings can be used to discuss the progress of particular students in their various classes; and committee meetings can be used to deal with special problems.

Demonstrations.—Demonstration teaching and intervisitation provide an effective means of local in-service education. Visits within the school itself are helpful, especially when a curriculum development program is in progress and certain teachers have assumed responsibility for initiating changes on an experimental basis. Some schools have established demonstration classes for observation purposes; and in some cities, whole schools have been designated as experimental and demonstration centers. For example, Samuel Gompers Junior High School in Los Angeles, a participant in the Stanford Social Education Investigation, was designated as an experimental high school. Visiting between communities is also a useful technique. If a school plans to introduce changes in the social-studies classes, it is a good idea to find out where similar changes already have been made and, if possible, to observe and discuss the changes with the teachers who made them.

Institutes and study groups.—Other techniques that are used in local in-service education programs are lectures, conferences, institutes, and study groups. Individual lectures are utilized on timely problems and topics. Conferences have been held to consider such things as postwar educational planning, the improvement of instruction, and evaluation. Institutes are held periodically and are even required by law in some states. Most conferences and institutes are composed of lectures and discussion, especially the former. Recently, efforts have been made to utilize work-type activities more extensively, to center the lectures and discussion directly on local problems, and to have conferences and institutes become an integral part of a well-organized, long-term plan of in-service education and curriculum development. Rather than using individual lecturers, some schools have organized a series of lectures in the form of a local in-service class. In Salt Lake City, a study group was organized in the evening under the leadership of local participants who were members of the Stanford Social Education Investigation. Local programs of in-service education would be

enerally more effective if more opportunity were provided for coöpera-ive teacher-administrator planning and for the utilization of local eacher leadership.

Local workshops.—As was indicated earlier in this chapter, local work-hops have become one of the most useful techniques of in-service ducation. If such workshops are held, however, it is important that hey be well-planned, that the staff be well-qualified, that sufficient ime be devoted to them, that adequate materials be available, and that eachers participate in the planning, organization, and direction so that naximum attention will be devoted to local needs.

Planning periods.—Among the schools that participated in the Stanford Social Education Investigation, West High School in Denver and all five junior high schools in Pasadena had a regularly scheduled daily period for planning, in-service education, and other professional activities by teachers and administrators. In both cities the first period in the morning was used. Types of meetings and activities were varied; for example, a meeting of the entire faculty might be held one day, departmental meetings the next, grade-level meetings the next, special committees the next, and so on. A policy council planned and coördinated the program.[14]

Social-studies teachers can contribute greatly to their professional development by participating actively in local faculty and depart-mental meetings, study groups, conferences, institutes, and workshops. Wherever possible, such participation should be active rather than passive and should be directed toward making positive contributions to professional service.

Professional Service

Opportunities for rendering professional service are numerous. An increasing number of schools are carrying forward programs of con-tinuous curriculum revision. Such programs, to be successful, demand the contributions of many teachers. Serving on committees to study student needs, survey community resources, define democratic values, formulate objectives, revise the program of study, select materials, write units, and devise evaluation techniques offers excellent possibilities for professional growth. As was indicated in Chapter 7, making a resource unit provides experiences related to almost every aspect of curriculum-planning. Teachers who make special studies might write bulletins or monographs for distribution to other teachers and the profession generally. Evaluation instruments, prepared by teachers, may be of use not only to the one who prepares them but to others as well.

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More teachers should participate in programs of experimentation and research. Too many ideas in education remain on the verbal level. Teachers who experiment with the use of teacher-pupil planning, the problems approach, the use of a variety of materials, and newer procedures in evaluation may not only make a contribution to their own development but render a valuable professional service to others. Another important service is involved in conducting research in such areas as local population and vocational trends, follow-up studies of graduates, the needs of students on different age levels, the background and needs of minority groups in the school, and the like. Experimentation and research provide material for professional writing that may be published in article or book form. If a teacher is working for a degree, such projects, of course, offer excellent possibilities for theses and dissertations.

More teachers should write materials for use by students. The trend in textbook writing is to emphasize teacher participation in authorship. There is a need for pamphlet materials, for fictional materials for children and youth, and for materials on local geography, history, and culture. Teachers who have the ability and interest should try their hand at such writing, and if successful they will render a professional service and contribute to their own professional development and advancement.

One of the drawbacks to rendering professional service is the heavy load carried by most teachers. Administrators have sought to encourage teachers to participate in local professional-service activities by reducing the load of those who have special service responsibilities; by employing substitutes to free teachers for special projects; by paying teachers in the summer to work on curriculum revision, make studies, and prepare materials; by giving recognition in the salary scale to professional contributions; and by scheduling in-service education and curriculum work within the regular school day.

Social-studies teachers may extend the area and value of their professional service by being members of city-wide, county, state, national, and international committees. Many curriculum programs are county-wide and even state-wide. There are numerous national committees, and with increased international organization, coöperation, and action in education through UNESCO and other agencies, international committees have been established. Teachers who have contributions to offer should make known their interests and their availability for service on these committees. Membership in professional organizations is an excellent way to increase opportunities for such participation.

Membership in Professional Organizations

Social-studies teachers need to be more organization-minded. In a specialized and interdependent world, an individual has difficulty in exerting influence and making contributions except through organization. Mass organizations have grown in the past half century like the green bay tree, and their influence has spread rapidly through the social organism. Social-studies teachers are better informed about these facts than any other group; yet only a very small percentage of social-studies teachers belong to their national professional organization—the National Council for the Social Studies.

Edith Brooks Oagley has admirably stated the value of educational organization as: (1) strengthening the teaching profession; (2) developing professional-mindedness among teachers; (3) keeping teachers alert and progressive; (4) stimulating the reading of professional and scholarly books and magazines; (5) enriching personality; (6) developing competence through participation; (7) providing opportunities for service and contributions to the improvement of education; (8) increasing friendly personal relationships with other teachers; and (9) keeping alive "that faith in education, that confidence in the power of the social studies, that enthusiasm for the day's work, which make teaching a stimulating service and not a tedious task."[15]

National Education Association.—All members of the educational profession should belong to the National Education Association. The N.E.A. speaks for education at the national level. Through the Educational Policies Commission, it develops statements of policy and publishes reports and books of major importance. It publishes the *Journal* and issues research reports and other publications. Even more importantly, it represents education before the national government and in international educational relations and seeks the highest level of development, prestige, and standards for the education profession. The N.E.A. is seeking to achieve a hundred-per-cent membership of all educational workers, and every social-studies teacher should belong and assist in extending membership. Equally important is membership in state and local educational organizations. A very high percentage of teachers belong to their state educational organizations because the value of such organizations in placement, promotion, and protection of the rights of teachers, in securing higher salaries, and in raising professional standards is recognized widely.

National Council for the Social Studies.—The National Education Association operates in the various areas of education through its departments. The department of the N.E.A. in the field of social education is the National Council for the Social Studies. The National

Council, founded in 1921, is undoubtedly the most important single national organization of social-studies teachers. It provides the maximum opportunity for professional development and participation, and its influence has increased steadily. An examination of the footnotes and bibliographies in this volume will indicate the range and significance of National Council publications.

The official journal of the National Council for the Social Studies is *Social Education,* which has already been described earlier in this chapter. A yearbook series is published, with such recent titles as *Citizens for a New World, Democratic Human Relations, The Study and Teaching of American History,* and *Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies.* A series of bulletins is also published including units, and the like. The curriculum series, another group of publications, includes such titles as *The Future of the Social Studies* and *Social Education for Young Children.* The Council has also issued such major statements of policy as *The Social Studies Mobilize for Victory* and *The Social Studies Look Beyond the War.*

The National Council coöperates with many other organizations in publication projects. The "Problems in American Life" series, produced jointly by the National Council and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, has already been discussed, as has *American History in Schools and Colleges,* the report of a joint project with the American Historical Association and the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. Other joint projects have been carried on in such areas as consumer, intercultural, and international education.

The National Council holds an annual meeting at Thanksgiving and joint meetings with such organizations as the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, the American Political Science Association, the National Education Association, and the American Association of School Administrators. These meetings provide an opportunity to hear leaders in the field, to examine new materials, to discuss common problems, and to take joint action. The Council maintains several standing committees in such areas as civic education, curriculum, academic freedom, audio-visual aids, and international relations. These committees carry out various projects, prepare publications, and make reports at meetings. The office of the National Council, under the direction of its executive secretary, is in the National Education Association Building in Washington, D. C. Annual dues are three dollars, for which members receive *Social Education,* the yearbook, and other publications. Members are entitled to attend and participate in all meetings, to vote, and to hold offices in the Council, to which they may be elected or appointed.

Other professional organizations.—In addition to the National Council, there are important regional organizations in the social studies, for example, the New England History Teachers Association and the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers. More than half the states have social-studies organizations, and strong local organizations exist in many parts of the country. The Southern California Social Science Association publishes the *Social Science Review*. The local, state, and regional associations carry on such activities as holding meetings, issuing bulletins, and giving direction to the development of the professionalization of the teaching of the social studies. Many of these associations are affiliated with the National Council for the Social Studies, which publishes accounts of their activities in the "Notes and News" section of *Social Education*, furnishes speakers for meetings, and enables them to fit their program into the national pattern.[16]

Social-studies teachers have a responsibility for belonging to and participating actively in local, state, and national social-studies organizations. Where local organizations do not exist, they should be established. Membership in such organizations as the National Council of Geography Teachers, the American Historical Association, the American Political Science Association, the American Economics Association, the American Sociological Society, or the American Geographic Society is valuable in the professional development of teachers especially interested in any of these fields. All these organizations are interested in the problem of the teaching of content from their areas in the public schools, and the National Council of Geography Teachers exists especially for that purpose.

Conclusion

Obviously, social-studies teachers cannot belong to all professionally desirable organizations, nor can they participate extensively in all the types of in-service activities discussed in this chapter. Time must be spared for rest, relaxation, and recreation, and for family and other responsibilities outside the classroom. Yet developing social competence in the young is a grave responsibility and requires a high level of effectiveness. Social-studies teachers need to determine the knowledge, understandings, standards, skills, and abilities that will contribute most to their success, to appraise their own strengths and weaknesses in terms of these, and then to discover and utilize every type of experience, within the bounds of available time, money, and vitality, which will contribute to their ability to teach the young to become socially competent and worth-while citizens in a democratic nation and an interdependent world.

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AREAS OF CRUCIAL IMPORTANCE

The Tasks Before Us

THE AUTHORS, in this volume, have attempted to provide basic guide
lines for the development of an effective program of social education,
with special reference to the rôle of the social-studies teacher. The
history of the teaching of the social studies, public challenges, the
nature of contemporary society, the values of democracy, the needs of
students, objectives, materials of instruction, techniques of preplan-
ning, methods of instruction, evaluation, and professional growth have
all been considered. Throughout, an emphasis has been placed on
social reality and social change, flexibility and adjustability, and the
need for modification and creativity in social education to meet new
personal-social needs and new demands for social competence.

In this, the final chapter, the authors wish to present their conclu-
sions and recommendations concerning certain areas of crucial im-
portance which cut across all the areas hitherto discussed. Education
has an important responsibility in the achievement of a better world,
and in the fulfillment of this responsibility the social-studies teacher
has a significant rôle. This rôle is defined by the goals which the peo-
ple of the United States and the world seek to attain. Three of these
goals have already been stated in Chapter 1: (1) a lasting peace; (2)
full employment and a high level of economic well-being; and (3) a
fuller realization of the values of democracy, especially in the area
of intercultural and interracial relations. In this chapter a fourth goal
is added—the development of the highest level of personal integrity
and character.

Efforts to achieve the first three of these goals through political
organization and legislation are continual. But political organiza-
tion and the enactment of laws will not alone achieve the goals toward
which we strive. These goals can be achieved in the long run only if
people have the competence necessary to attain them. The develop-
ment of understandings, ideals, and competence in social action is
the proper, though not exclusive, function of the social-studies teacher.

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Hence the rôle of the social-studies teacher, in the immediate and foreseeable future, is to use his resources in knowledge, professional skill, and the art of teaching to develop the understandings, ideals, and competence necessary to achieve peace, prosperity, happiness, and the highest level of personal integrity and character in the world of tomorrow. The remainder of this chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the authors on how this rôle can be, at least in part, fulfilled.

Establishing a Lasting Peace

There is a grim determination to achieve a lasting peace. This determination has expressed itself in the formation of an international political organization. But there should be no delusion that a political organization can prevent war automatically. The League of Nations contained resources for maintaining peace that were never fully used. Even with the existence of the United Nations, a world war will again be unavoidable if any of the great powers should embark on a program of aggression. It must not be forgotten that with a strong federal government based on the Constitution of the United States, the North and South fought a long and bloody war. The prevention of war should not be difficult while the death, misery, and destruction of World War II lie fresh on the mind. But international rivalries are still intense, and the threat of war in a disorganized world is great and makes effective international organization and control imperative to peace and security.

International organization is indispensable to provide the framework within which, and the instrument through which, peace can be achieved. But peace, in the long run, is based upon mutual respect, understanding, coöperation, and a willingness and ability to use reason rather than force in the solution of common problems. Hence, a program of education for international understanding is necessary to maintain and keep effectual the world political organization. Assistance in this task is a major responsibility of social-studies teachers.

Social-studies teachers have already made significant contributions to education for international coöperation. Between World War I and World War II, materials on the cultures of other nations, world history, world problems, and international relations were added to the curriculum in all sections of the United States and on all levels of the school program. During World War II, the National Council for the Social Studies and other groups and individuals issued publications containing recommendations for education to develop world understanding and coöperation.[1] The Liaison Committee for Inter-

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national Education was organized, under the leadership of Grayson N. Kefauver of Stanford University, to coördinate the activities of educational groups in the United States and to stimulate additional action. Recognizing the need of consultation with educators from other nations, the Liaison Committee was instrumental in organizing the International Education Assembly with unofficial representatives from more than thirty of the United Nations. The International Education Assembly issued two major reports during World War II: *Education for International Security*[2] and *Education for a Free Society*.[3] Both these reports contained significant proposals for social education.

In *Education for International Security,* specific recommendations were made in regard to: an international organization for education and cultural development, rebuilding the educational programs of the war-devastated United Nations, reconstruction of the educational programs of the Axis countries, and education for world citizenship. These proposals have had a significant influence on international action in education. In *Education for a Free Society,* the International Education Assembly recommended nine principles for international educational coöperation. These principles are:

1. Education develops free men and women.
2. Everyone should be educated.
3. Opportunities for advanced and adult education should be ample and justly distributed.
4. Modern tools of communication should be fully and freely used for popular enlightenment.
5. There should be complete freedom to learn.
6. Education should enrich human personality.
7. Education should develop economic competence.
8. Education is concerned with the development of character.
9. Education should develop civic responsibility and international understanding.

Social-studies teachers can endorse and contribute to the achievement of all these principles, and in the last four, at least, they have special responsibilities. World War II and the formation of the United Nations and UNESCO have focused special attention on the development of civic competence and international understanding. Civic responsibility is now world-wide; and if peace is to be maintained, social-studies teachers must be concerned with the development of world citizens. World citizenship, however, does not require a different kind of civic education from that needed to produce desirable citizens in any area. In fact, it is best conceived as an extension

of a loyal and wholesome local, state, and national citizenship. As is stated in *Education for International Security*:

The qualities of character most desirable in the relations of home, neighborhood, community, and nation, are those which are most needed in world relations. Education for world citizenship should begin with the wholesome development of the child in the personal-social relations of his immediate environment and concurrently extend his understanding of and his responsibilities and effectiveness in a broader environment which comprehends the peoples and places in an interdependent world.[4]

More specifically, the social-studies teacher can contribute to the development of international understanding and world citizenship by:

1. Examining the present content of social-studies courses and eliminating material which may lead to prejudice, intolerance, and antagonism toward other peoples.[5]
2. Introducing content and experiences throughout the social-studies program which will contribute to the development of an understanding and appreciation of the peoples of other nations.
3. Emphasizing world unity, world heroes, the victories of peace, and the welfare of mankind in historical study.
4. Introducing more content from anthropology to show the extent to which human behavior is culturally determined.[6]
5. Utilizing content from geography and economics to develop an understanding of the distribution of world population in relation to natural resources, the extent of specialization and interdependence in the production of goods, the rapidly shrinking size of the world due to advances in transportation and communication, and the relationship of standards of living to world coöperation.
6. Using content from social psychology and elsewhere to develop an understanding of the formation of public opinion and its effects upon human action.[7]
7. Studying other cultures and world history extensively and using material from and experiences in art, literature, music, and the dance as well as factual information in such study. The study of world cultures and world history should be required of high-school students.
8. Utilizing motion pictures, the radio, newspapers, museums, pageants, model assemblies, international correspondence, student exchanges, and other materials and techniques more extensively.
9. Using symbols of world unity in documents, people, flags, music, and the like as they exist and are developed.[8]
10. Using problem-solving and pupil-teacher planning techniques more extensively so that the ability to think reflectively and act democratically in the solution of world problems will be increased.

The effective utilization of such suggestions as these rests on the understanding and competence of each social-studies teacher. Hence,

social-studies teachers have a grave responsibility to continue their own education in international understanding and to deepen and clarify their conception of world events and problems. This task involves active participation in professional organizations such as the National Council for the Social Studies, in local programs of in-service education, in advanced graduate study; it involves also an active interest and, wherever possible, actual participation in the development of events.[9]

Education for international understanding, however, extends beyond the classroom and the teacher—it involves the coöperation of nations. No nation can educate for peace while its neighbors educate for war without courting tragic consequences. Education for peace, to be successful, must be a world movement; it must be based on world coöperation and action. Thus social-studies teachers have a responsibility to contribute to the effectiveness of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. This organization makes possible a world-wide approach to the development of international understanding and coöperation. But education for peace should not be considered in opposition to the use of force by the United Nations political organization to restrain aggressors. On the contrary, education for world citizenship should support the use of force by duly constituted world authorities to maintain order and security in the same way that local and national citizenship supports the proper use of police power in the community, state, and nation.

Education for Economic Well-Being

Economic issues and problems have become central factors in the social relations of the modern world. Peace, happiness, and security at home and abroad are related closely to economic well-being. Dictators, promising bread and circuses in return for blind obedience, arise out of economic misery. Even the United States has not been free from economic messiahs, and a return to large-scale unemployment would endanger peace within and without the nation.

Teachers of the social studies have a heavy responsibility for developing the competence necessary to achieve and maintain economic well-being. More economic content needs to be introduced into social-studies classes on all levels, and the economic significance of content and experiences of all kinds should be a concern of the social-studies teacher.[10] Of course economic education is a total school responsibility, and experiences in social-studies classes should be an integral part of an overall program that includes a like emphasis in other general-education and elective courses, special opportunities for vocational exploration, a

sound guidance program, "adequate information about employment trends, expert predictions of employment needs and conditions to come, and a much greater expansion of vocational preparation offerings."[11]

Teachers of the social studies can assist in the development of economic competence by helping to clarify economic goals, giving vocational orientation and guidance, stressing the development of behaviors that contribute to vocational success, providing emotional assurance of adequacy in economic achievement, assisting in placement, stressing consumer education, and developing effectiveness in economic citizenship.

There is a large measure of agreement among business, labor, and governmental leaders concerning such basic economic goals as (1) full employment; (2) protection through social-security programs against economic factors over which the individual has no control; (3) equality of economic opportunity; and (4) the achievement of standards of living commensurate with the promises of modern technology. Social-studies teachers can assist youth to recognize these goals, to appraise the extent to which they are being achieved, and to consider promising possibilities for economic improvement. It is important that young people recognize that the achievement of economic well-being rests on the responsibility of all people to prepare themselves effectively for a vocation for which they have aptitude, to secure a job, to work hard, and to give full value for income received.

To take full advantage of employment opportunities and to make their maximum economic contribution, young people require a more adequate basis for job selection than they have had in the past. Vocational orientation and guidance are major responsibilities of social-studies teachers. More material on vocations should be introduced into social-studies classes on all levels. Students should be guided in discovering their own interests and aptitudes in relation to vocational opportunities. Students can participate directly in community surveys, in doing jobs within the school that have vocational significance, and in having community work experiences with related classroom study. These activities will assist both in vocational orientation and guidance and in the development of self-confidence in vocational ability and in emotional assurance of vocational success.[12]

Factors which contribute to vocational successes in all kinds of jobs—such as the ability to work with others, adaptability, dependability, and high standards of workmanship—can be stressed throughout the social-studies program. There is danger in some schools that too much emphasis may be placed on the development of specific vocational skills to the neglect of adequate general education. All students need an

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understanding of the modern world, wholesome ideals to direct their lives, and the competence necessary to work toward achievement.

The school, as a whole, has a greater responsibility for the placement and follow-up of young workers than has been assumed in the past. In some senior-problems courses, social-studies teachers are helping in this task by working directly with local employment offices, with employers, and with labor unions in assisting young people to secure jobs before they leave school. This opportunity should be available to all young people who desire it, either through the social-studies senior-problems class or through some other aspect of the school's program. Furthermore, young workers should have an opportunity to continue to use the facilities of the school for assistance in solving their social problems and in developing their civic competence.

Consumer education is gaining added attention in education, and the rôle of the social-studies teacher is increasing in this area as consumption becomes recognized as one of the most important economic problems of the modern world. Considerable success has been achieved in solving the problems of production, but there is still difficulty in normal times in getting adequate purchasing power in the hands of consumers and having them use that purchasing power wisely. Social-studies teachers can assist youth by helping them:

(1) to understand how goods and services are produced and distributed, (2) to weigh intelligently their various desires and to balance their expenditures with their incomes, (3) to learn how to check the quality of various products, (4) to appreciate the place of good taste and quality in the selection of goods and services, (5) to understand the strong and weak points of various consumer organizations, and (6) to use goods wisely.[13]

The most significant rôle of the social-studies teacher in the achievement of economic well-being is the development of effectiveness in economic citizenship. Economics and politics are becoming more closely related. The citizen has to make increasingly important choices on economic issues. Consequently, a major function of the social-studies teacher is to guide students in developing good judgment in the area of economic action by government. This requires considerable knowledge in the field of economics and the ability to apply that knowledge to political issues involving economic questions. Social-studies teachers can direct youth in the study of the historical development of the relation of government to economics, the study of current economic problems and their political implications, and the points of view of various organized groups on the proper relationship between government and business. In the consideration of economic problems, it is especially important that a balanced approach be maintained, that

facts be carefully collected, and conclusions checked. Economic issues are complex and difficult even for experts to understand; but if citizens are to make intelligent choices on political issues concerning economic action, it is important that they be well-informed and that they have the opportunity in school to develop the highest possible level of economic citizenship.[14]

Broader Realization of Democratic Values

The achievement of a broader realization of democratic values is closely related to peace and economic well-being because adherence to these values provides an environment within which human personalities can be enriched and human relations improved. Moreover, the operation of democratic values—mutual respect, coöperation, and the use of intelligence—is essential to the attainment of peace, prosperity, and happiness both at home and abroad. Before the American people can be fully successful in achieving mutual respect abroad, they need more of it at home.

Social-studies teachers and education generally must be much more effective in developing mutual respect and providing equality of opportunity regardless of race, creed, or economic circumstances if the values of democracy are to be fully realized. In recognition of this fact, intercultural and interracial education is receiving increasing attention from educators and lay groups. Such organizations as the Bureau for Intercultural Education and the National Conference for Christians and Jews have made significant contributions to education for the improvement of intergroup relations.

As in other areas, education for the improvement of intercultural and interracial relations involves knowledge and understanding, values and ideals, skills and abilities. Myrdal, and the research group working with him, found that the American people accept as fact numerous misconceptions concerning race and culture.[15] One of the major tasks of social education is to substitute fact for fancy, and understanding and appreciation for prejudice in intergroup relations. This task requires clear and accurate conceptions of culture and race on the part of social-studies teachers themselves. In order to give assistance in this area Vickery and Cole developed a group of generalizations about culture which are supported by anthropological and sociological research. Their generalizations are as follows:

1. Every society has a culture, more or less distinctive, which profoundly influences the way its members satisfy their innate organic wants and may even define certain needs peculiar to that society.

2. Cultural influences on human behavior are so great and cultural dif-
ferences so pronounced that to generalize about human nature from
the study of one culture is unwise and unscientific.

3. Culturally rather than biologically transmitted differences are most
likely to account for social variations among racial, religious, and
national groups.

4. Each society tends to think of its culture as superior to all others; but
claims of superiority demand criteria to define what is superior. It is
impossible to prove that any one culture is best in all respects, for all
people, at any given time or in any particular situation.

5. In the past, cultures were relatively more isolated and stable than they
are or can be today. The interchange of artifacts, customs, and values
has been enormously speeded up by modern technological developments,
especially in communication and transportation.

6. The dominant position of Western European peoples in world affairs—
largely a result of their application of science and technical knowledge
—has led them to assume that their respective cultures are in all ways
superior to those of other groups. This assumption has in turn led to
an increased hostility among culture groups, involving most European
peoples in war.

7. The colonial culture of the United States, largely of British origin, has
been extensively modified by three centuries of adaptation to the Amer-
ican environment and the influx of non-British peoples. Nevertheless,
the English language and law, together with derivatives of English
values and customs, persist as the foundation stones of the dominant
culture pattern in this country. As acculturation proceeds, it seems
likely that the British tradition will play a decreasing rôle in the devel-
opment of an American civilization, though its influence will probably
remain greater than that of any other single contributor.

8. The several racial, religious, and ethnic cultural traditions existing side
by side in the United States, together with regional diversities in ways
of living, serve to enrich American life and to stimulate new develop-
ments in science, religion, art, literature, and in economic and po-
litical life.[16]

In order to help teachers to develop a more accurate conception of
the meaning of *race*, Vickery and Cole made the following conclusions
which they based on available anthropological research:

1. A "race" is a physical division of mankind, the members of which are
distinguished by the possession of similar combinations of anatomical
features due to their common heredity.

2. There exists no single physical criterion for distinguishing race; race
is essentially a zoölogical device, whereby indefinitely large groups of
similar appearance and hereditary background are classified together
for the sake of convenience.

3. Anthropologists have found as yet no relationship between any physical criteria of race and mental capacity, whether in individuals or in groups.

4. There has been achieved no precise scientific determination of racial differences in psychological characteristics, in tastes, in temperament and even in intellectual qualities.

5. Race is not synonymous with language, culture, or nationality. Thus there is no "Aryan race," no "French race" and no "German race" properly so-called.

6. Physical anthropologists, as yet, are unable precisely to grade existing human races upon an evolutionary scale, upon the basis of the sum total of anatomical deviations from apes and lower animals.

7. A "pure" race is little more than an anthropological abstraction. No pure race can be found in any civilized country.

8. The composite origin of most of the existing races of man is demonstrable.

9. The study of the results of hybridization between the most physically diverse and modern races, such as the Negro and the Nordic, or the Mongoloid and the brunet Mediterranean white, has not demonstrated that fertility is decreased, or vitality diminished, by such crossing.

10. Within every race there is "a great individual variation in physical features and in mental capacity but no close correlation between physique and mentality has been scientifically demonstrated."[17]

These lists of generalizations and conclusions suggest content that can be used from anthropology, sociology, psychology, geography, and history to develop the understandings necessary for wholesome intercultural and interracial relations. Knowledge, however, is not enough. Many people know better and yet they are prejudiced toward other races and cultural groups and act toward them as if they were inferior. Social-studies teachers need to make sure that right knowledge and right action go together. This means the practice of mutual respect and equal opportunity for individuals in our own classrooms, schools, and communities without regard to cultural, ethnic, religious, racial, or economic differences. Intergroup education, to be effective, must include the whole school and, in so far as possible, the whole community.

Springfield, Massachusetts, has developed a program of education for democratic living in the school and community that stresses the improvement of human relations—mutual understanding, appreciation, and respect among all races, religions, and nationalities. The emphasis is on the development of democratic citizenship through democratic living in the school and "through the use of units of study to give boys and girls a background for thinking about democracy, to show them what American democracy is, how it works or how sometimes it does

not work, and how they can do their share in sustaining and improving it."[18] The secondary-school social-studies program in Springfield is organized for this purpose.

Grade VII.........The contributions of older civilizations to modern American democracy are studied to bring out the fact that the American dream is not an isolated phenomenon but a part of the long struggle of men of all races and countries to be free.

Grade VIII........The effects of government upon people are emphasized, and a phase of that study is a unit on the contributions of religions to modern American democracy.

Grade IX..........The work deals with different ethnic groups which have contributed to the building of America. As a part of the study the students make an investigation of the contributions of different nationalities to Springfield.

Grade X...........The class in history studies the races of mankind.

Grade XI..........The American history classes consider American democracy as a piece of unfinished business, with emphasis on the tasks lying before this and succeeding generations.

Grade XII.........Units on public opinion, prejudice, and propaganda are studied and the High School Town Meeting, a discussion program designed to give boys and girls an opportunity to learn the methods of democratic procedure, to practice the processes of democratic group thinking, and to apply the principles of democracy to actual situations, is organized. Most of the discussions of town meeting groups lead to some sort of appropriate action.[19]

Music, art, literature, and the dance can be used to foster intergroup understanding. Music and art are universal in their appeal, and through them all groups can speak without the barrier of language. Pageants, dramatic activities, and other techniques have been found effective.[20] The documentary-play technique, as reported by Spencer Brown in *They See for Themselves,* has promising possibilities. Materials for high-school use in the development of effective intergroup relations have been and are limited. Many useful materials, however, are now available, notably, the *Building America* issues on our minority groups and peoples of other cultures, and Hortense Powdermaker's *Probing Our Prejudices.*[21]

In education for a broader realization of democratic values, the suc-

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cessful and satisfying performance of joint tasks in which students from various groups participate on an equal basis is the most effective way of building mutual appreciation, respect, and understanding. In this area as elsewhere, the attitudes, actions, and personality of the teacher are of paramount importance. Every social-studies teacher needs to search his own soul, conquer his own prejudices, and be a living example of one who has faith in democracy in action and in the brotherhood of man.

The Development of Personal Integrity and Character

Education for a broader realization of democratic values is one aspect of education for the development of personal integrity and character. Character education is needed today more than ever before. The atomic bomb places in the hands of man an instrument of almost unlimited power. The highest development of character and moral worth is required to save humanity from destruction. Throughout this volume the integral relationship of knowledge, ideals, and action in the development of social competence has been stressed. Knowledge and the ability to act, without desirable values and ideals, may lead to great evil rather than good. An intelligent and educated criminal is more dangerous to society than a stupid and ignorant one. We live in an age characterized by a weakening of faith in traditional values—similar in this respect to the situation in Greece during the period when Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle sought to give a new orientation to thought and action. The profound changes in the modern world and their relationship to education are reflected in such titles for books as *America in Midpassage*,[22] *Society in Transition*,[23] *Knowledge for What?*[24] *Education for Democratic Survival*,[25] *Education Between Two Worlds*,[26] and *Education for a World Adrift*.[27] The feeling has become widespread among intellectual leaders that not only has a faith in traditional values been seriously weakened, but also that the public schools are failing to fulfill their responsibilities in building character and faith in the values that have been developed in Western civilization during many centuries of struggle and sacrifice.

The Western tradition of values is rooted in the Hebraic-Christian ethic, nourished by the heritage of Greek philosophy, and given political substance by modern democracy. The weakening of faith in religious ideals and democracy was counted on by Hitler in his attack on the West; and, even though Hitler's defeat has demonstrated that great moral force still exists in the Western world, the evidence of a loss of faith in classical, religious, and democratic values is still extensive. Our success in the war has been explained, in at least one instance,

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as due to the holdover of the moral training of the last generation, which has in large part disappeared.[28]

Marie Syrkin has vividly described the evidences of a lack of faith in the values of democracy which she discovered in a large metropolitan high school during the early months of World War II.[29] One of the authors of this volume, as a part of her work in the Stanford Social Education Investigation, found that available research indicated that traditional school practice had little effect upon the attitudes and value standards of students.[30] Walter Lippmann has said, in speaking of modern education:

> There is an enormous vacuum where until a few decades ago there was the substance of education. And with what is that vacuum filled: it is filled with the elective, the eclectic, the specialised, the accidental and incidental improvisations and spontaneous curiosities of teachers and students. There is no common faith, no common body of principle, no common moral and intellectual discipline. Yet the graduates of these modern schools are expected to form a civilised community. They are expected to govern themselves. They are expected to have a social conscience. They are expected to arrive by discussion at common purposes. When one realises that they have no common culture, is it astounding that they have no common purpose? That they worship false gods? That only in war do they unite? That in the fierce struggle for existence they are tearing Western society to pieces? . . . We have established a system of education in which we insist that while everyone must be educated, yet there is nothing in particular that an educated man should know.[31]

While many of the conclusions expressed by Lippmann and those who support his point of view seem well-substantiated, the analysis of causes and the recommendations for cures made by many critics of modern education are not always based on a knowledge of the actual situation in the American high school. In the first place, secondary schools have not changed so significantly during the past generation as many people seem to think. There has been a tremendous expansion of the school population, as has been indicated earlier in this volume, and many new subjects have been added to the curriculum; but the old subjects are still taught, and, by and large, those who pursue the academic curriculum and later go to college are required to take them. Furthermore, textbook memorization, recitation, and testing for facts are still the basic procedure for teaching in the content fields, as they were a generation ago. Hence, it seems ironical to use whatever limitations current high-school graduates may have as a basis for condemning and opposing educational change; on the contrary, the inadequacies of high-school graduates indicate the need for more

carefully considered and intelligently executed changes directed toward improving the effectiveness of education.

Secondly, there is a tendency to misinterpret the classical, especially the Greek, tradition in education, or at least to select that which supports an authoritarian, *memoriter* conception of education. Plato recognized the close relationship between education and social action, and in the *Republic* he proposed a very practical program of education directed toward the development of the behavior required for living the good life in the good state. Plato was an educational innovator in his day. If he were alive now, he would be unlikely to make the same recommendations for education in an interdependent, industrial world that he made for a theoretical, isolated, small, highly cohesive, rural-handicraft state. This does not deny that Plato recognized many of the enduring factors in education which are of continuing significance today and some of which are still inadequately applied, such as the importance of the environment in learning, equal education for women and men, an extended period of compulsory education for every child, nursery schools, and adult education.[32] Furthermore, Plato lived in a world of changing values, an essential characteristic of our own times.

Finally, those who are most critical of modern education sometimes fail to be constructive in their suggestions for improvement. It is important to remember that, as Sir Richard Livingstone so well expresses it, "criticism is only the burying beetle that gets rid of what is dead . . . the world lives by creative and constructive forces, and not by negation and destruction. . . ."[33] Many suggestions have been made for strengthening values and ideals. The conclusions and recommendations of the present authors in this area are that social-studies teachers should:

1. Participate in the development of effective programs of general education.
2. Stress the development of an ethical foundation for living.
3. Utilize the richness of the humanist tradition.
4. Make the arts an integral part of everyday life.
5. Stress study, observation, and practice of right living in home, school, and community.
6. Employ the problem-solving technique, with its emphasis on the scientific method, more extensively.
7. Maintain the highest standards of performance commensurate with ability.
8. Improve the quality of human relations.
9. Teach by the example of high-mindedness, appropriate action, and wholesome relations with others.

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General Education and the Development of Values

The development of an effective program of general education is the answer of modern education to the challenge of "no common faith, no common body of principle, no common moral and intellectual discipline." The general-education program is required of all students. Its function is to give students experience in common areas of content, to satisfy common needs, and to develop common behaviors—understandings, skills, abilities, values, and ideals. Within the general-education program, youth can have experience with great literature, art, and music; they can study the common heritage of the Western world; they can reflect on modern problems; and they can work together to realize more fully their ideals in their immediate environments. Thus the general-education program provides the opportunity to focus directly on the development of values.[34]

The Hebraic-Christian Ethic

The Hebraic-Christian ethic is the moral foundation of the culture of the United States and the Western world. Faith in this ethic provided unity and meaning to the Middle Ages and served as a carrier of ideals from classical culture to the people of the modern world. In the conception of the dignity and brotherhood of man, of the infinite value of the individual, and of love and coöperation as a way of life, the Hebraic-Christian ethic laid a foundation for the improvement of human relations and the development of the democratic way of life.

Through the study of the development of moral conceptions in Greece, Rome, and Palestine, of the formation and spread of Christianity, of the Catholic Church in the Middle Ages, of the Reformation, and of the rôle of religion in the founding and building of American culture and in giving guidance and meaning to the life of the individual, the social-studies teacher can do much to help youth to identify themselves with great ethical ideals and form a sound faith for living. Great literature from the Greeks and Romans, from the Bible, and from medieval and modern writers should be used in the classroom. Biographies of great spiritual leaders and a consideration of how their ethical conceptions influenced their lives should be utilized. A positive approach to the church and religion should be an integral part of the study of the community and the nation and of other cultures throughout the world, maintaining a mutual respect and consideration for all faiths that contribute to human welfare and spiritual expression.

The Humanist Tradition

The humanist tradition stems from the Greeks. They first developed the conception of the life of reason—that God had created man, en-

dowed him with reason, and given him the possibility of improving himself and his culture through the study of nature, reflection about issues involving choice, and right action. The humanist tradition reached the modern world through Rome, North Africa, and the Middle East. Its revival during the Renaissance and its flowering in the eighteenth-century Enlightenment provided the core of the idea of progress in modern culture. Man developed a faith in his own powers, in his ability to govern himself, solve his problems, and constantly improve his lot on earth.[35]

In history courses the development of the humanist tradition, man's struggle to achieve higher ideals and better ways of living, can be studied directly. The great documents from the humanist tradition can be read and discussed. Its influence on economic conceptions, on law, on the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, on Jefferson, Madison, and Lincoln can be considered. The meaning of the idea of progress and of the basic tenets of democracy for the present and future can be studied.

The idea of progress has been demonstrated in the modern world by advancements in science. Francis Bacon, John Locke, and the eighteenth-century philosophers saw the scientific method of thought as the instrument through which man would discover the laws of nature and by utilizing and living according to them achieve a Heavenly City here on earth. The great discoveries of Copernicus, Galileo, Newton, and others gave substance to their faith. In the eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth centuries, science has been applied directly to technology, and the result has been miracles of production, transportation, and communication that give promise of material abundance, peace, and human well-being. It is important that the study of the humanist tradition should not neglect the accomplishments of modern man in these areas. All young people need to understand the development of science, its rôle in contemporary civilization, its challenges and promises for the future. The emphasis on values must not lead to a neglect of science, but instead to a further development and a fuller utilization and direction of science in giving reality to the ideas of progress and the perfectability of man, which are the essence of the humanist tradition.

Use of the Arts and Literature

The humanist tradition is expressed not only in economics, law, and politics, but also in literature and the arts. In fact, some of the finest expressions of the humanist ideal exist in poetry, great paintings, music, and architecture. The art of the Renaissance was an attempt to express

universal humanist ideals. Georgian architecture, which played such an important part in colonial America, and the use of Greek temples as models for modern governmental buildings and for great public monuments are expressions of the classical spirit. The poetry of Shelley, Keats, and Wordsworth expresses the optimism and the idealism of humanity. The paintings of David during the French Revolution were graphic presentations of the ideals of the Age of Reason.

The social-studies teacher can direct students in the study and appreciation of literature and the arts as an integral part of culture. They can be studied as expressions of great spiritual ideals in the past. Dante, Milton, and Shakespeare express the finest in human moral conceptions and ideals. Their poetry can be read against the background of the culture in which they lived and the moral ideals which they sought to express. The arts as elements in spiritual expression should not be approached too analytically but rather from the point of view of enjoyment, appreciation, and identification. Not only through observation and the other senses, but also through use and through creative expression on the part of youth themselves, art and beauty are integral to everyday living. Everything that is said or done involves potentialities for beauty: walking, dancing, playing games, speaking, writing, dress—all may be beautiful, mediocre, or ugly. Youth ought to strive to express the beautiful and the good in all their acts. Social-studies teachers can contribute toward these ends by making the arts an integral part of social-studies instruction.

The arts provide a constant conception of perfection, and they inspire to greater achievement. As Alfred Whitehead said in *The Aims of Education*, "moral education is impossible without the habitual vision of greatness." Social-studies classrooms, the school, the playground, the neighborhood, and the community should be pervaded with the spirit of beauty and high ideals. Youth should learn to appreciate greatness by living with it. For, as Plato wrote in the *Republic:*

Let our artists rather be those who are gifted to discern the true nature of the beautiful and the graceful; then will our youth dwell in a land of health, amid fair sights and sounds, and receive the good in everything; and beauty, the effluence of fair works, shall flow into the eye and ear, like a health-giving breeze from a purer region and insensibly draw the soul from earliest years into likeness and sympathy with the beauty of reason.[36]

Observation, Study, and Practice

In developing spiritual values and sound character, observation, emotional responses, thought, and action must be blended harmoniously if integrated personalities are to be achieved. Social-studies

teachers have often tended to neglect emotional aspects of experience and concentrate narrowly on the intellectual. As has been stressed throughout this volume, values, understandings, skills, and habits develop out of the same experiences, and they interact upon each other. A narrow emphasis on the intellectual may destroy interest, lead to the avoidance of future experiences in the same area, and produce sterile verbalizations, with knowledge and thought separated from action, in so far as that is possible. There is no implication here that knowledge and thought are to be neglected, but rather that they should be enriched and fertilized by interest and satisfaction in achievement. As has been indicated earlier, the arts, literature, visual aids, excursions, and other forms of direct experience all have possibilities for the stimulation of interest and the development of satisfaction in intellectual activity and wholesome social living. Wherever possible, knowledge and thought should be utilized in doing something about things studied. Students should act in the classroom and school in accordance with the understandings they develop and the principles they profess. Practice in living according to reason and high ideals is essential. Virtue develops through use. As Aristotle expressed it in his *Nicomachean Ethics,* "Men become builders by building and lyre-players by playing the lyre; so too we become just by doing just acts, temperate by doing temperate acts, brave by doing brave acts."[37]

In the chapters on techniques of teaching and on materials in this volume, the authors have attempted to describe how observation, study, and practice can be combined. In the initiation and development of units, students can observe the life about them, and through visual aids even life afar; they can read history, literature, and other types of material; they can listen to facts and ideas presented by others; they can become interested and inspired, define and analyze situations, collect and organize information, interpret their findings and draw conclusions. In the culmination of units, students can develop and execute plans of action based on their observations, study, and thought. Throughout their work in the social studies, they can practice justice, temperance, and courage in their relations with others. They can learn and live rightly in their immediate environment, and through study and thought they can expand that environment to include the peoples of an interdependent world.

Use of the Problem-Solving Technique and the Scientific Method

The problems approach has a considerable contribution to make to the development of ideals and standards in a rapidly changing society. An age of change and maladjustment is an age of choice. The

problems of the modern world demand choices on the part of all citizens, and the consequences of these choices are fraught with deep significance for future well-being. Every choice involves a conscious or unconscious system of ethical values. Choice is made between various possibilities on the basis of anticipated consequences; we choose the course of action which we believe will result in the best consequences, and our conception of *best* consequences rests on our conception of what is good and of what is the nature of the good life.

In studying problems, teachers can guide youth in recognizing the relationship between choice and value. Such questions as these can be raised: What will be the consequences of this course of action? Are these consequences good or bad? Why do we think they are good or bad? How are they related to our goals in life, our conception of our rôle in human relations, and our ethical ideals? When a course of action has been carried out, its results can be appraised in terms of its value implications. Were the consequences of the action desirable and good? If so, why? If not, why? Thus through study, thought, and action on problems that involve choice, students can become conscious of their value standards and the relation of those standards to choice and action. They can be assisted in raising their ethical ideals to the highest possible level and constantly to make their actions ever more consistent and harmonious with them.

The problem-solving approach also makes it possible to develop an appreciation of the rôle of the scientific method in the search for truth and in the improvement of human well-being. Bigotry, prejudice, and ignorance are enemies of virtue and the good life. Through the use of the scientific method, knowledge can be extended and truth established. The problem-solving technique is the method of science; through it young people can learn to be open-minded, objective, and zealous in their search for truth. They can learn the importance of reason as the pilot of emotion and the importance of disciplined thought as the instrument through which a better world can be achieved.

Maintenance of the Highest Standards of Performance

Another contribution which social-studies teachers can make to the development of values is to emphasize the importance of always performing at the highest level of ability—to be satisfied only with one's best. This requires a new attitude toward the appraisal of student progress.[38] Instead of a rigid and set standard for the whole class, each student has as his standard his own highest possible level of performance. A uniform and rigid standard often represses and crushes

those who are unable to achieve it, while at the same time it develops habits of indolence and a depreciation of standards for those who can achieve it with little effort. This may result in permanent damage to individual standards of performance because, as Tacitus says in speaking of the repression in Rome under Domitian:

As our bodies grow but slowly, perish in a moment, so it is easier to crush than to revive genius and its pursuits. Besides, the charm of indolence steals over us, and the idleness which at first we loathed we afterwards love.[30]

If the work of each student is appraised on the basis of his highest possible level of performance, he will be spurred to do his best and will gain satisfaction from so doing. Thus desirable standards of value will be built into personality through experience and practice, and each will make his own greatest contribution to the group and in turn enjoy and benefit from the best of others.

Improvement of the Quality of Human Relations

Ethical character is most directly expressed in human relations. The Golden Rule, the Brotherhood of Man, the Bill of Rights, the Four Freedoms are all expressions of duties and rights of man in his relations with other men. The major function of social-studies instruction is the improvement of human relations; hence, one of the greatest contributions that the social-studies teacher can make is the development of wholesome relations in the classroom and school.

In the social-studies classroom all individuals should have equal opportunities. Mutual association should be based on a respect for the personality and infinite value of others regardless of race, creed, or economic circumstance. There should be a warmth of human relations based on mutual understanding and appreciation. Responsibilities should be shared in the purposing, planning, executing, and evaluating of work projected and performed. Each student should recognize that duties and responsibilities accompany rights and freedoms. Emphasis should be placed on both right thought and right action. Students can learn to express the highest values of the Hebraic-Christian ethic, the humanist tradition, and the democratic way of life in their relations with those in their immediate environment and can extend their sensitivity, sympathy, thought, and action to comprehend all of mankind in the brotherhood of man.

The Example of the Teacher

In the human relations of the classroom and in the development of value standards and ideals generally, the example of the teacher is paramount. Learning is infectious. Bad examples corrupt the young

while good examples inspire to emulation and improvement. The personal integrity, knowledge, and ideals of the teacher as expressed in relations with students affect powerfully the development of their integrity and character.

Each teacher must search himself and strive for self-improvement if he is to make the greatest contribution to his students. Recognizing this fact, the authors of this book have attempted to provide some small assistance and direction to prospective and experienced social-studies teachers who seek to improve their effectiveness in the area of social education. The importance of sound scholarship, a high level of professional development, initiative, courage, and creativeness has been stressed throughout. The authors hope that the material and ideas presented will be of assistance in the development of high ideals and social competence in the young, for there lies the promise of a better future. The wars and turmoil of the modern world are disheartening and hold within them seeds of disaster. But man has made marked progress in many areas. He has dreamed great dreams and struggled toward their achievement. Out of the tribulations of the past and present can be built a better tomorrow. Atomic energy taps the storehouse of power of the universe. As Socrates said of life amid the conflicts and confusions of his day, "Noble is the prize and our hope is great."

FOOTNOTES

Chapter 1

1. Henry S. Commager and Allan Nevins (eds.), *The Heritage of America* (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1940), p. 213.
2. Rolla M. Tryon, *The Social Sciences as School Subjects* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935), pp. 101-115; William F. Russell, "The Entrance of History into the Curriculum of the Secondary School," *History Teacher's Magazine*, V (December 1914), 311-18; Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1940), pp. 49-52.
3. Tryon, *op. cit.*, pp. 248-60.
4. *Ibid.*, pp. 7-8.
5. *Ibid.*, p. 12.
6. The report was published by Macmillan in 1899.
7. *Op. cit.*, p. 22.
8. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 23 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1915).
9. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 28 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1916).
10. *Ibid.*, p. 11.
11. *Ibid.*
12. *Ibid.*, p. 10.
13. *Ibid.*
14. *Ibid.*, pp. 15-56.
15. *Op. cit.*, p. 20.
16. *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, pp. 52-53.
17. "Efforts Toward Reorganization," *Historical Outlook*, XX (December 1929), 373; quoted in Howard E. Wilson, *The Fusion of the Social Studies in Junior High Schools* ("Harvard Studies in Education," Vol. XXI; Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1933).
18. Victor Brudney, *Legislative Regulation of the Social Studies in Secondary Schools: Ninth Yearbook of School Law*, reprinted for the National Council for the Social Studies (Washington: American Council on Education, 1941), p. 141.
19. Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education, 1936-38*, II, Bulletin No. 2, 1940 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942), pp. 24-25.
20. Howard K. Beale, *A History of Freedom of Teaching in American Schools* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1941), p. 236.
21. Summaries of the various committee reports in the social studies will be found in Tryon, *op. cit.*, pp. 3-71; Wilson, *op. cit.*, pp. 65-70, 89-94; Johnson, *op. cit.*, pp. 53-66, 71-85; and Edgar B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1942), pp. 206-227.
22. National Society for the Study of Education, *The Social Studies in the Elementary and Secondary School: Twenty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II, prepared under the direction of Harold O. Rugg (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1923), pp. 9-10, 60-66.
23. The research projects conducted by the Ruggs, John Hockett, Henry Harap, Neal Billings, and others represented the application of the scientific movement in education to the social-studies curriculum. Howard E. Wilson (*op. cit.*, pp. 114-22) summarizes the major activity-analysis studies. The most complete discussion is in Earl U. Rugg, *Curriculum Studies in the Social Sciences and Citizenship* ("Colorado Teachers College Education Series," No. 3; Greeley: Colorado State Teachers College, 1928). Harold Rugg describes how some of this research was used to select content for his social-studies series in *That Men May Understand* (New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1941), pp. 169-273.
24. Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936), pp. 277-319.
25. *The Social Ideas of American Educators* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935), p. 578.
26. "Efforts Toward Reorganization," *op. cit.*, p. 372.
27. *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932), *passim*.
28. *Biennial Survey of Education, 1934-36*, I, Bulletin No. 2, 1937 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940), pp. 33-34.
29. "Final Report and Recommendations of the Commission on History to the College Entrance Examination Board," *Social Studies*, XXVII (December 1936), 546-66. The findings of this commission do not contradict the fact that there were certain dominant social-studies courses which were commonly offered in secondary schools.
30. "The History Inquiry," *Historical Outlook*, XV (June 1924), 239-72.
31. A. C. Krey (Chairman), Frank W. Ballou, Charles A. Beard, Isaiah Bowman, Ada Comstock, George S. Counts, Avery O. Craven, Edmund E. Day, Guy Stanton Ford, Carlton J. H. Hayes, Ernest Horn, Henry Johnson, Leon C. Marshall, Charles E. Merriam, Jesse H. Newlon, Jesse E. Steiner. G. S. Counts served as research director, W. G. Kimmel as executive secretary, and T. L. Kelley as psychologist and adviser on tests. The *Conclusions and Recommendations* were signed by all members of the commission except Ballou, Day, Horn, and Merriam. Bowman signed with reservations.
32. All the volumes were published by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. The roman numeral before each volume except the *Conclusions and Recommendations* refers to the part number of the volume in the total report.

    Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission (1934).
I. Charles A. Beard, *A Charter for the Social Sciences* (1932).
II. Henry Johnson, *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences* (1932).
III. Bessie L. Pierce, *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth* (1933).
IV. Truman L. Kelley and A. C. Krey, *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences* (1934).
V. Isaiah Bowman, *Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences* (1934).
VI. Charles E. Merriam, *Civic Education in the United States* (1934).
VII. Charles A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences* (1934).
VIII. Jesse H. Newlon, *Educational Administration as Social Policy* (1934).
IX. George S. Counts, *The Social Foundations of Education* (1934).
X. Merle Curti, *The Social Ideas of American Educators* (1935).
XI. Rolla M. Tryon, *The Social Sciences as School Subjects* (1935).
XII. Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* (1936).
XIII. Leon C. Marshall and Rachel M. Goetz, *Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies* (1936).
XIV. William C. Bagley and Thomas Alexander, *The Teacher of the Social Studies* (1937).
XV. Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies* (1937).
XVI. Howard K. Beale, *A History of Freedom of Teaching in American Schools* (1941).

33. A. C. Krey and a group of collaborators at the University of Minnesota followed this suggestion for their region, and the results were published in A. C. Krey, *A Regional Program for the Social Studies* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1938).

34. James A. Michener (ed.), *The Future of the Social Studies* (Cambridge: National Council for the Social Studies, 1939).

35. Committee on the Function of the Social Studies in General Education, *The Social Studies in General Education* (New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1940), pp. 382-84.

36. Avis Carlson, "Can the Schools Save Democracy?" *Harper's Magazine*, CLXXIV (April 1937), 528.

37. William S. Learned and Benjamin D. Wood, *The Student and His Knowledge: Study of the Relation of Secondary and Higher Education in Pennsylvania*, Bulletin No. 29 (New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Learning, 1938), pp. 145-49.

38. *Education for Citizenship: A Report of the Regents' Inquiry* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938), pp. 20-27, 84-88.

39. Learned and Wood, *op. cit.*, pp. 147-49.

40. *New York Times*, April 4, 1943. When the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges tested the knowledge of high-school students, they found only a small difference between those who had had American history in senior high school and those who had not. See Edgar B. Wesley (director), *American History in Schools and Colleges* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1944), pp. 11-12.

41. The following research studies on social attitudes illustrate the small effect which the social studies have on student attitudes.

    Theodore B. Brameld, "College Students React to Social Issues," *Social Frontier*, I (December 1934), 21-26.
    Ruth E. Eckert and Henry C. Mills, "International Attitude and Related Academic and Social Factors," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, IX (November 1935), 142-53.
    Vernon Jones, "Attitudes of College Students and the Change in Social Attitudes During Four Years of College," Parts I and II, *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXIX (January-February, 1938), 14-25, 114-38.
    Arthur Lichtenstein, *Can Attitudes Be Taught?* (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1934).
    J. Wayne Wrightstone, "Civic Beliefs and Correlated Intellectual and Social Factors," *School Review*, XVII (January 1934), 53-58.
    Hedvig Ylvisaker and Robert Pace, "Differential Changes in College Students' Information and Attitudes in Social Studies Courses," *Social Education*, IV (February 1940), 116-20.

42. Wilson, *Education for Citizenship*, pp. 78-79.

43. For a more complete discussion of the effect of social-studies instruction in developing social competence, see Grayson N. Kefauver and I. James Quillen, *Plan for the Stanford Social Education Investigation* (Stanford University: School of Education, 1939), pp. 13-15; and J. Paul Leonard and Alvin C. Eurich (eds.), *Evaluation of Modern Education* (New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1942), chap. iii.

44. For an able discussion of the American history issue, see Erling Hunt, "More American History?" *Social Education*, VI (October 1942), 250-52.

45. Wesley, *American History in Schools and Colleges*, p. 43.

46. For one of the most extensive studies, see Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum, *The Social Studies Curriculum: Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence* (Washington: National Education Association, 1936), pp. 63-90.

47. *Op. cit.*, p. 252.

48. Edwin R. A. Seligman, "What Are the Social Sciences?" *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, I (New York: Macmillan Co., 1930), 3.

49. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, p. 3.

50. *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, p. 9.

51. *Op. cit.*, p. 401.

52. *Teaching the Social Studies*, p. 6.
53. *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, p 58.
54. Wesley, *American History in Schools and Colleges*, p. 94.
55. During 1938, I. James Quillen explored developments in social education in the United States and Grayson N. Kefauver explored developments in Europe preparatory to the organization of the Investigation; and during most of 1944, Lavone A. Hanna, as a part-time member of the staff, continued to participate in the preparation of the reports.
56. For a more complete description of the Stanford Social Education Investigation, see I. James Quillen and Edward A. Krug, "The Stanford Social Education Investigation," *Educational Method*, XX (March 1941), 323-27.
57. This diagram should not be interpreted to imply that there is a separation of culture and values, but simply that values give direction to cultural change.
58. Since the culture of the United States is a part of an interdependent world, these character-istics also apply to a greater or lesser extent to the whole world situation and especially to Western culture.
59. President's Research Committee on Social Trends, *Recent Social Trends in the United States* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933), pp. xi-lxxv.
60. *Learning the Ways of Democracy* (Washington: National Education Association, 1940), pp. 35-39.

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1. Committee on Social-Economic Goals of America, *Implications of Social-Economic Goals for Education* (Washington: National Education Association, 1937), p. 89.
2. New York: Newson & Co., 1938.
3. V. T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky, *Reorganizing Secondary Education* (New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1939), p. 27.
4. These techniques were suggested by Ralph W. Tyler, "Collecting Student Needs: Possible Procedures for Obtaining Tentative Lists of Pupil Needs," in "The Study of Needs as One Basis for Determining Curriculum Objectives and Content" (Chicago: Cooperative Study in General Education, n.d.), (Mimeographed.) This entire bulletin is an excellent guide to the use of needs in determining curriculum objectives and content.
5. *The Prospects of American Democracy* (New York: John Day Co., 1938), chaps. ix and x.
6. Charles A. and Mary R. Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization* (New York: Macmillan Co.); in four vols.: *The Agricultural Era* (1927), *The Industrial Era* (1930), *America in Midpassage* (1939), *The American Spirit* (1942).
7. *Civic Education in the United States* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), chap. i.
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10. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1929.
11. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1937.
12. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1937.
13. W. Lloyd Warner and Paul S. Lunt, *The Social Life of a Modern Community* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941). This is Volume I of the six-volume "Yankee City Series."
14. *Holyoke, Massachusetts* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1939).
15. Daniel A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1938), chap. vi.
16. Caroline B. Zachry, *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940), p. vii.
17. *Ibid.*, and Peter Blos, *The Adolescent Personality: A Study of Individual Growth* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1941).
18. Helen B. Pryor, *As the Child Grows* (New York: Silver, Burdett Co., 1943), pp. 305-16; C. Tryon, *Evaluation of Adolescent Personality by Adolescents*, Society for Research in Child Development Monographs, IV, No. 4 (Washington: National Research Council, 1939); idem, *Studies of Individual Children* (Berkeley: Institute of Child Welfare, University of California, 1939); Herbert Stolz, M. C. Jones, and J. Chaffey, "The Junior High School Age," *University High School Journal*, Vol. XV, No. 2 (January 1937); Lois H. Meek and others, *The Personal-Social Development of Boys and Girls with Implications for Secondary Teaching* (New York: Progressive Education Association, 1940); W. J. Cameron, "A Study of Early Adolescent Personality," *Progressive Education*, XV (November 1938), 553-63.
19. "Teaching and Protecting Our American Ideals of Democracy: A Guide for Social Living Teachers" (Eugene, Ore.: Eugene Public Schools, May 1942), p. 8. (Mimeographed.)
20. By Alice V. Keliher. New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1938.

21. "Survey of Pupil Needs," report submitted to the Stanford Social Education Investigation by the faculty of the Samuel Gompers Junior High School, Los Angeles, California, June 1942 (mimeographed); also reported in Carol Smallenburg, "Teachers', Parents', and Pupils' Beliefs about Junior High School Pupil Needs" (unpublished, to be submitted as Doctoral dissertation, Stanford University).

22. "The Identification of the Interests and Problems of High School Students and Their Implications for Curriculum Development" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Stanford University, 1940).

23. Since Santa Barbara schools are organized on the 6-3-3 plan, the tenth grade is the first year of the senior high school.

24. Gompers "Survey of Pupil Needs."

25. "Summary of Growth Needs of Pasadena Junior High School Pupils" (Pasadena Public Schools, Pasadena, Calif.).

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H. S. Diehl and C. E. Shephard, *The Health of College Students* (1939).
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32. *Ibid.*, pp. 3-21.

33. Alvin C. Eurich and C. Gilbert Wrenn, "Appraisal of Student Characteristics and Needs"; in Grayson N. Kefauver (chairman), *Guidance in Educational Institutions: Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education,* Part I (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1938), p. 70.

34. Arthur E. Arneson, "Curriculum Development in Local School Systems—Salt Lake City, Utah," *Curriculum Journal,* XIII (December 1942), 348-49.

35. Paul R. Hanna in the Preface to Pryor, *op. cit.*, p. vi.

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2. Fremont P. Wirth, "Objectives for the Social Studies," *The Contribution of Research to the Teaching of the Social Studies: Eighth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies,* ed. by C. C. Barnes (Cambridge: National Council for the Social Studies, 1937), p. 38.

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4. Wilbur F. Murra, Edgar B. Wesley, and Noah E. Zink, "Social Studies," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research,* p. 1134.

5. Earl Miller, "A Study in the Objectives of American History" (unpublished Master's thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1928), summarized by Wirth, *op. cit.*, pp. 27-28.

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8. Lavone A. Hanna, "Development of Social Attitudes by Conventional Education," in J. Paul Leonard and Alvin C. Eurich (eds.), *Evaluation of Modern Education* (New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1942), pp. 73-78.

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13. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* (Washington: National Education Association, 1938), pp. 50-123.

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15. Adapted from the definition of *coöperation* as used in the Eugene Public Schools, Eugene, Oregon. (Key to Report Card, Eugene Public Schools, 1942.)

16. Lewin and his students have presented interesting studies of the effect of three kinds of "atmospheres" on learning. Clubs of children were observed in atmospheres which were designated as "democratic," "autocratic," and "laissez-faire." The studies show that both the quantity and the quality of the work done by the group in which a democratic atmosphere prevailed were superior to the work accomplished by either the group dominated by the teacher or the one left alone without adult guidance. Teachers of social education will find that these studies have great significance for classroom organization and procedure. See Kurt Lewin, Ronald R. Lippitt, and R. K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created 'Social Climates,'" *Journal of Social Psychology*, X (1939), 271-99; or R. Lippitt, "An Experimental Study of Authoritarian and Democratic Group Atmospheres," in Kurt Lewin, Ronald R. Lippitt, and Sybille K. Escalona, *Studies in Topological and Vector Psychology* ("University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare," Vol. XVI, No. 3; Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1940), p. 307. For summary of studies see: Goodwin Watson, "What Are the Effects of Democratic Atmosphere on Children?" *Progressive Education*, XVII (1940), 336-42; and Leonard and Eurich, *op. cit.*, pp. 136-41. The experiment carried on at Western Electric's Hawthorne Plant also shows the importance of a spirit of group unity and coöperation on achievement and output as well as in giving the individual the sense of belonging, of worth, and of achievement so essential for good mental health. See Stuart Chase, "What Makes the Worker Like to Work?" *Reader's Digest*, XXXVIII (February 1941), 15-20; or F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1939).

17. Pasadena Junior High School Report Card, Pasadena, California, 1941-42.

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19. Fred W. Blase, teacher of United States History and Government, Sequoia Union High School, Redwood City, California.

20. Developed by Nell Crosgrove, Bryant Lower Division High School, Salt Lake City, Utah.

21. Reported by Ruth S. Lindsay, Bryant Lower Division High School, Salt Lake City, Utah.

22. Developed by the tenth-grade social-living teachers at Eugene High School, Eugene, Oregon.

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7. V. T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky, *Reorganizing Secondary Education* (New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1939), p. 44.

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8. Leon C. Marshall, "Social Processes and the Social-Study Curriculum," *The Future of the Social Studies*, ed. by James A. Michener (Cambridge: National Council for the Social Studies, 1939), p. 92. For more complete discussion see Leon C. Marshall and Rachel M. Goetz, *Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies*, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part XIII (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936).

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14. *Ibid.*, p. 22.

15. *Ibid.*, p. 36.

16. I. James Quillen, "A Suggested Curriculum for the Social Studies," *The Future of the Social Studies*, p. 122.

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24. Joint Committee on Curriculum of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association and the Society for Curriculum Study (Henry Harap, chairman), *The Changing Curriculum* (New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1937), p. 110.

25. "The Social Studies Curriculum," *Child Development and the Curriculum: Thirty-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, ed. by Carleton C. Washburn (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1939), pp. 326-27.

26. See David G. Ryans, "Motivation in Learning," *The Psychology of Learning: Forty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II, ed. by N. B. Henry (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1942), pp. 289-331, for some of the research studies on motivation.

27. Meek and others, *op. cit.*, p. 166.

28. Stanford Social Education Investigation, "A Statement of Principles on Issues Important in Social Education" (Stanford University: Stanford Social Education Investigation, 1942), pp. 8-9. (Duplicated.)

29. J. G. Umstattd, "Secondary Education—IV. Curriculum," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, ed. by Walter S. Monroe (New York: Macmillan Co., 1940), p. 1092.

30. *Ibid.*, p. 1094.

31. Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools of the American Historical Association, *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), *passim*.

32. L. Thomas Hopkins and others, *Integration: Its Meaning and Application* (New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1937), p. 210.

33. F. C. Ayer, *General Principles and Patterns of Construction in the Texas State Curriculum Revision Program*, Curriculum News Bulletin, Vol. I, No. 4 (Austin: Texas State Department of Education, 1936).

34. *Education for All American Youth* (Washington: National Education Association, 1944), p. 252 and *passim*.

35. *Ibid.*, p. 244; also National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *Planning for American Youth* (Washington: The Association, 1944), p. 47.

36. For a complete description of the use of the conference hour in Pasadena see the Pasadena report in Grayson N. Kefauver and Edward A. Krug, *Leadership in Social Education* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. [Publication date to be announced]).

Chapter 5

1. Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931), pp. 24-25.

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2. *The Social Sciences as School Subjects* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935), pp. 515-16.
3. Alice E. Carey, Paul R. Hanna, and J. L. Meriam, *Catalog: Units of Work, Activities, Projects, etc., to 1932* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932), p. ix.
4. *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part XV (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937), p. 414.
5. James A. Michener and Harold M. Long, *The Unit in the Social Studies* ("Harvard Workshop Series," No. 1; Cambridge: Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1940), p. 1.
6. *Ibid.*, pp. 10-11.
7. Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development* (New York: American Book Co., 1935), p. 400.
8. John R. Davey and Howard C. Hill, "The Unit and the Unit Method in the Social Studies," in *The Contribution of Research to the Teaching of the Social Studies: Eighth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies*, ed. by C. C. Barnes (Cambridge: National Council for the Social Studies, 1937), pp. 1-20.
9. Burr W. Phillips, "Investigations in the Field of Method," in *ibid.*, p. 63.
10. Caswell and Campbell (*op. cit.*, pp. 403-39) classified units as:
   I. Subject matter
      A. Topical unit
      B. Generalization unit
      C. Unit based on significant aspect of environment and culture
   II. Experience
      A. Unit based on center of interest
      B. Unit based on pupil purpose
      C. Unit based on pupil need.
   J. Paul Leonard ("What Is a Unit of Work?" *Curriculum Journal*, VIII [March 1937] 103-6) makes the following classification:
      1. The Traditional Subject-Matter Unit
      2. The Functional Subject-Matter Unit
      3. The Possible Child-Experience Unit
      4. The Immediate Child-Experience Unit
   Arthur J. Jones, E. D. Grizzell, and Wren Jones Grinstead (*Principles of Unit Construction* [New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1939], pp. 12-23) believe that units fall into the following classifications:
      1. The Subject-Matter Unit
      2. The Center of Interest Unit
      3. The Unit of Adaptation
   M. J. Stormzand and Robert H. Lewis (*New Methods in the Social Studies* [New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1935], pp. 8-11) state that all unit plans are either chronological or topical.
11. "Teaching U. S. History and Civics in California," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIX (November 1944), 357-58. About 71 per cent of the questionnaires sent out were returned.
12. *Op. cit.*, p. 213.
13. "Course of Study for American History and Civilization," Secondary School Program of Studies, Field of the Social Studies (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1940). (Mimeographed.)
14. *Ibid.*, pp. 43-52.
15. R. M. Tryon, *op. cit.*, p. 444.
16. "Course of Study for World Civilization," Secondary School Program of Studies, Field of the Social Studies (Salt Lake City Public Schools, 1940). (Mimeographed.)
17. Edgar B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1942), p. 126.
18. R. M. Tryon, *op. cit.*, p. 436.
19. Subcommittee on United States History and Civics of the General Education Committee, *Improvement of Instruction in the Required Course in Citizenship in California High Schools*, Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. X, No. 11 (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1941), pp. 9-10.
20. *Op. cit.*, p. 126.
21. Stanford Social Education Investigation, "A Statement of Principles on Issues Important in Social Education" (Stanford University: Stanford Social Education Investigation, 1942), pp. 13-14. (Duplicated.)
22. "Teaching U. S. History and Civics in California," *op. cit.*, p. 364.
23. The Social Studies Committee, *Living Today—Learning for Tomorrow* (Seattle: Seattle Public Schools, 1938), p. 98.
24. "Teaching and Protecting Our American Ideals of Democracy: A Guide for Social Living Teachers" (Eugene, Ore.: Eugene Public Schools, May 1942), pp. 26-28. (Mimeographed.) The teachers select from the units suggested those they wish to teach. The starred units are considered as "basic or fundamental in importance."
25. Stanford Social Education Investigation, *op. cit.*, p. 14.
26. R. M. Tryon, *op. cit.*, p. 490.
27. *Ibid.*, p. 509. Tryon's illustrations are all in the area of history.
28. John Dewey, *How We Think* (New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1933), pp. 106-18.

29. H. H. Giles, *Pupil-Teacher Planning* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1941); H. H. Giles, S. P. McCutchen, A. N. Zechiel, *Exploring the Curriculum* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1942); Commission on the Relation of School and College, Progressive Education Association, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story* ("Adventure in American Education," Vol. V; New York: Harper & Bros., 1943).

30. For descriptions of some of the techniques developed, see James A. Michener, "Participation in Community Surveys as Social Education," in Ruth West (ed.), *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies: Ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies* (Cambridge: The Council, 1938), pp. 144-63.

31. Howard R. Anderson (ed.), *Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies: Thirteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies* (Washington: The Council, 1942). Material from the Cornell Project on Critical Thinking is used extensively in this yearbook.

32. Lavone A. Hanna, Edward A. Krug, and I. James Quillen, "The Problems Approach," Bulletin No. 10 of the Stanford Social Education Investigation, 1940. (Mimeographed.)

33. *Op. cit.*, pp. 107-18.

34. See chap. 11 for other illustrations.

35. For an excellent description of the problem-solving process, see Anderson, *op. cit.*, pp. 1-47.

36. V. T. Thayer, Caroline B. Zachry, and Ruth Kotinsky, *Reorganizing Secondary Education* (New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1939), pp. 223 ff.

37. "United States History and Government," Vol. I (Resource Units I, II, III) and Vol. II (Resource Units IV, V, VI) (Department of Curriculum and Educational Research, Long Beach Public Schools, 1945). (Mimeographed.)

38. A copy of this resource unit will be found in Appendix I.

39. *Supra*, chap. 4.

40. Stanford Social Education Investigation, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

41. I. James Quillen, "Social Education and the American Tradition," in Stanford Education Conference, *Social Education* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1939), pp. 240-59. This gives a more complete discussion of the effect of change in American culture on youth education.

42. Horn, *op. cit.*, p. 103.

43. Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1938), pp. 209-55; and Ruth Eckert and Thomas O. Marshall, *When Youth Leave School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1939), pp. 86-120, 261-80.

44. Stanford Social Education Investigation, *op. cit.*, pp. 15-16.

Chapter 6

1. Edward L. Thorndike, *Your City* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1939), pp. 33-34.

2. It is interesting to note, however, that the students in this class using the problems approach made more growth in one semester than was made in a year's time by the students in any of the other classes in their ability to read and interpret data, draw qualified judgments, recognize the limitations of data for drawing valid generalizations, use logical reasoning and avoid undesirable arguments, use books and library resources, and judge the reliability of sources; and they also were more liberal and more consistent in their attitudes on social issues.

3. Frank Young, "Some Factors Affecting Teacher Efficiency," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXII (May 1939), 649-52.

4. For a discussion of the formula used in computing units of teaching load, see Harl R. Douglass, *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools* (New York: Ginn & Co., 1932), p. 115.

5. See *infra*, chap. 16, for a list of these behaviors. A more complete discussion of the behaviors is given in Grayson N. Kefauver and Edward A. Krug, *Leadership in Social Education* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. [Publication date to be announced]), chap. ii. Two of the behaviors used in the Social Education Investigation were not used in matching the teachers. One, "use of problems approach," would not have been a fair basis of comparison in a study set up to judge the merits of problem-solving as an approach to social education. Another, "maintains friendly personal relationships," was added to the list of behaviors after the study was under way.

6. J. Wayne Wrightstone, " A Social Background Data Sheet," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, VII (April 1934), 525-27.

7. All the tests and techniques used in connection with this study are discussed in chap. 14.

Chapter 7

1. Louis Wirth (ed.), *Contemporary Social Problems* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940), pp. 11-12.

2. Bulletin No. 1 of the Investigation, written by Lavone A. Hanna and mimeographed in 1939, was entitled "Source Units" and was used widely in the participating schools.

3. Chester D. Babcock, Eber Jeffery, and Archie W. Troelstrup, *Paying for the War*, National Council for the Social Studies Bulletin No. 18 (Washington: The Council, 1942).

4. Some units had two social scientists and one had two master teachers.

5. This manual, written by I. James Quillen, contains some of the ideas in this chapter in substantially the same form. The units in the "Problems in American Life" series may be secured from either the National Council for the Social Studies or the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C.
6. See chap. 8 for a more complete discussion of initiatory, developmental, and culminating activities.
7. For a discussion of evaluation techniques and sample instruments, see chap. 16.
8. A sample resource unit will be found in Appendix I.
9. Mildred L. Biddick, "The Preparation and Use of Resource Units" (New York: Progressive Education Association, n.d.), pp. 11-12. (Mimeographed.)
10. By W. Robert Wunsch and Edna Albers. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1939.

Chapter 8

1. Helen Parkhurst, *Education on the Dalton Plan* (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1922); Henry J. Otto, "Elementary Education, Organization and Administration," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, ed. by Walter S. Monroe (New York: Macmillan Co., 1940), pp. 436-37; Ruth Wanger, "World History under the Dalton Plan at South Philadelphia High School," *Historical Outlook*, XVIII (December 1937), 383-90.
2. Commission on the Relation of School and College, Progressive Education Association, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story* ("Adventure in American Education," Vol. V; New York: Harper & Bros., 1943), p. 112.
3. William H. Kilpatrick, *Foundations of Method* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1925), pp. 344-58.
4. Rolla M. Tryon, *The Social Sciences as School Subjects* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935), p. 512.
5. Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931), pp. 255-338.
6. *Ibid.*, pp. 81-91.
7. See Oscar K. Buros (ed.), *The 1940 Mental Measurements Yearbook* (Highland Park, N. J.: Mental Measurements Yearbook, 1941), for an appraisal of available attitude tests.
8. These scales are published by the University of Chicago Press.
9. A catalogue of the Human Relations Series of films can be obtained from the Commission on Human Relations, New York University, Washington Square, New York. The films are also distributed through many of the university film libraries.
10. See Committee on Motion Pictures in Education, *Selected Educational Motion Pictures: A Descriptive Encyclopedia* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1942), and the Supplement, *Films for America at War;* also see *Educational Film Catalogue* (New York: H. W. Wilson Co.).
11. This series of radio plays may be obtained from the Educational Radio Script and Transcription Exchange, Office of Education, Washington, D. C. (7 records, 30 min. each, 16 mm., 33-1/3 R.P.M.).
12. Also obtainable from the Educational Radio Script and Transcription Exchange (24 records, 30 min. each, either 12 in., 78 R.P.M., or 16 in., 33-1/3 R.P.M.).
13. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940.
14. Philadelphia: McKinley, 1941.
15. See bibliography for chap. 9.
16. *Current History*, XXX (July 1929), 577-84; also reprinted in M. David Hoffman and Ruth Wanger (eds.), *Leadership in a Changing World* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1935), pp. 30-40.
17. Published by L. B. Fischer, New York, 1942.
18. "Youth Has Its Say about Itself and the War," *Fortune*, XXVI (November 1942), 8 ff.
19. *Atlantic Monthly*, CLVII (February 1936), 208-16; abridged in *Reader's Digest*, XXVIII (April 1936), 11-16.
20. Ronald R. Lippitt and R. K. White, "The 'Social Climate' of Children's Groups," in Roger G. Barker, Jacob S. Kounin, and Herbert F. Wright (eds.), *Child Development and Behavior* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1943), pp. 485-508.
21. H. H. Giles, *Pupil-Teacher Planning* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1941), pp. 127-34; and Bernice Baxter and Rosalind Cassidy, *Group Experience: The Democratic Way* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1943).
22. See chap. 11 for a more complete discussion of the use of community resources.
23. A usable guide is Bess Goodykoontz, *Know Your Community*, United States Office of Education Leaflet No. 57 ("Know Your School" series; Washington: Superintendent of Documents, 1941); 35 pp. For others, see chap. 2, p. 41. Chap. 11 describes how to make a community survey.
24. See chap. 10 for a fuller discussion of audio-visual materials.
25. Matthew Evans, "Use of Artistic Materials in Social Education," Bulletin No. 11 of the Stanford Social Education Investigation (1940; mimeo.), gives a fuller discussion of the use of artistic materials.
26. Hendrik W. Van Loon, *The Arts* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1937), p. 612.
27. *Idem, The Story of Mankind* (New York: Boni & Liveright, 1921), p. 360.

28. Commission on Secondary School Curriculum, *The Visual Arts in "General Education* (New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1940).
29. For suggestions, see Floyd E. Brooker and Eugene H. Herrington, *Students Make Motion Pictures* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1941). This is a report on film production in the Denver schools.
30. *Scholastic,* XXVIII (March 7, 1936), 7-9.
31. *Atlantic Monthly,* CLXI (March 1938), 316-20; abridged in *Reader's Digest,* XXXII (April 1938), 38-40, and in *Scholastic,* XXXIII (September 14, 1938), 17 ff.
32. Spencer Brown, in *They See for Themselves* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1945), describes how high-school students wrote and produced documentary plays in the area of intercultural education.
33. *Fortune,* XV (May 1937), 172.
34. The script for the Federal Theatre plays, *One-Third of a Nation, Power, Triple-A Plowed Under, Injunction Granted,* are difficult to obtain. A good description can be found in Arthur Arent, "The Technique of the Living Newspaper," *Theatre Arts Monthly,* XXII (November 1938), 820-25; Spencer Brown, *op. cit.,* pp. 57-64; and George F. Williston (ed.), *Let's Make a Play: Twelve Plays by Children* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1940).
35. For examples of these activities, see chap. 11.

Chapter 9

1. Ernest Horn, *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies,* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part XV (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937), p. 174.
2. *Ibid.,* pp. 177-78.
3. Wilbur F. Murra, Edgar B. Wesley, Noah E. Zink, "Social Studies," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research,* ed. by Walter S. Monroe (New York: Macmillan Co., 1940), p. 1147.
4. *Ibid.,* p. 1142.
5. Howard E. Wilson, *Education for Citizenship: A Report of the Regents' Inquiry* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938), p. 272.
6. Committee on the Textbook, *The Textbook in American Education: Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education,* Part II (Bloomington Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1931), pp. 7-26.
7. National Education Association, Research Division, *Improving Social Studies Instruction,* Research Bulletin, Vol. XV, No. 5 (Washington: The Association, November 1937), pp. 211-213.
8. *Op. cit.,* pp. 209-10.
9. For a list of textbooks available up to March 1939, see Wilbur F. Murra and others, *Bibliography of Textbooks in the Social Studies,* National Council for the Social Studies Bulletin No. 12 (Washington: The Council, 1939).
10. Murra, Wesley, and Zink, *op. cit.,* p. 1147.
11. *Ibid.,* p. 1146.
12. William E. Vickery, "Some Suggestions for Selecting a Social-Studies Textbook," in *Bibliography of Textbooks in the Social Studies,* pp. 60-74.
13. Edgar B. Wesley, *Reading Guide for Social Studies Teachers,* National Council for the Social Studies Bulletin No. 17 (Washington: The Council, 1941), pp. 14-16.
14. *Ibid.,* pp. 15-16. Wesley explains each of the points quoted from him.
15. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1941.
16. New York: Little, Brown & Co., 1940.
17. "Historical Methods and Primary Sources" in Richard E. Thursfield (ed.), *The Study and Teaching of American History: Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies* (Washington: The Council, 1947), pp. 325-39.
18. For an extended and annotated list of pamphlet material, see Henry Kronenberg, Rolla M. Tryon, and Hazel Nutter, *Pamphlets on Public Affairs for Use in Social Studies Classes,* National Council for the Social Studies Bulletin No. 8 (Washington: The Council, 1937); also section on "Pamphlets and Government Publications" in current issues of *Social Education* magazine.
19. Edgar Dale's *How to Read a Newspaper* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1941) is an excellent guide.
20. Table 24, chap. 6.
21. James E. Wert, "A Technique for Determining Levels of Group Reading," *Educational Research Bulletin,* Vol. XVI, No. 4 (May 19, 1937), p. 116.
22. See Table 25, chap. 6.
23. Walter C. Eells, "Scale for Evaluation of Periodicals in Secondary School Libraries," *Wilson Bulletin for Librarians,* XI (June 1937), 668-73; "Evaluation of Periodical Collections of Secondary School Libraries," *ibid.,* XII (October 1937), 150-53; "Periodicals Received by Secondary School Libraries," *ibid.,* XII (November 1937), 187-89; "What Periodicals Do School Pupils Prefer?" *ibid.,* XII (December 1937), 248-52; "Comparative Rankings of Periodicals: Report on One Phase of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards," *ibid.,* XII (January 1938), 318-21.
24. Lucille F. Fargo, *The Library in the School* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1939), p. 242.

25. Walter E. Myer and Clay Coss, *Education for Democratic Survival* (Washington: Civic Education Service, 1942), pp. 161-79.
26. Stanford Social Education Investigation, "A Statement of Principles on Issues Important in Social Education" (Stanford University: Stanford Social Education Investigation, 1942), pp. 32-33.

Chapter 10

1. This would be done, of course, if the class were planning to produce a motion picture.
2. See Francis W. Noel, *Projecting Motion Pictures in the Classroom* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1941), and Edgar Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching* (New York: Dryden Press, 1946), pp. 470-88, for helpful suggestions on the mechanics of classroom projection.
3. Published by Carnegie Institution of Washington and the American Geographical Society of New York.
4. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1943.
5. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944.
6. An excellent list of map sources is to be found in Mary E. Townsend and Alice G. Stewart, *Audio-Visual Aids for Teachers* ("Social Science Service" series, II; New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1937).
7. Rudolf Modley, *How to Use Pictorial Statistics* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1937), pp. 13-16.
8. For a fuller discussion of excursions, see chap. 11.
9. See photograph of model oxcart made by W.P.A. workers in the 1939 *Visual Review*, published by the Society for Visual Education, Inc., Chicago, p. 47.
10. For an example of museum-school coöperation in a community, see Philip N. Youtz, "Progressive Education in the Brooklyn Museums," *Progressive Education*, XIV (November 1937), 535-36, also "Toledo Museum," *Life*, VII (July 31, 1935), 32-37.
11. Valuable lists of museums are included in the following references: Cline M. Koon, *Sources of Visual Aids and Equipment for Instructional Use in Schools*, Pamphlet 80 (Washington: United States Office of Education, 1941), pp. 1-4; and Townsend and Stewart, *op. cit.*
12. For a good discussion of this point, see Charles F. Hoban, Charles F. Hoban, Jr., and Samuel B. Zisman, *Visualizing the Curriculum* (New York: Cordon Co., 1937), pp. 184-91; Dale, *op. cit.*, pp. 219-50.
13. Dale, *op. cit.*, pp. 250-67, 372-74.

Chapter 11

1. William G. Carr, "Linking the Schools with Life," in Florence C. Bingham (ed.), *Community Life in a Democracy* (Chicago: National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1942), pp. 35-37.
2. "Community Resources" (Des Moines Public Schools, 1939-40). (Mimeographed.)
3. This list was selected from a more extensive one in Stephen E. Epler, *The Teacher, the School, the Community* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1941), pp. 5-19. The list in Epler is annotated to give the activities of each organization.
4. Lois Sentman ("Schools and Social Agencies Work Together," in *How to Know and How to Use Your Community* [Washington: Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, 1941-42], pp. 47-50) gives an analysis of community agencies in relation to important topical areas.
5. "Community Resources," pp. 15-16.
6. Aileen McCarthy, Margaret Holland, and Agnes Fordelli, "A List of Environmental Institutions, Historic Places, and Economic Enterprises Which Might Be Used in Social Studies in San Francisco" (San Francisco Public Schools, June 1936), p. 3. (Mimeographed.) This list has the following sections: "Geographic Setting," "Civic Institutions," "Economic Enterprises," and "Cultural and Aesthetic Centers."
7. "Children Explore Their Communities," in *How to Know and How to Use Your Community*, p. 43.
8. New Jersey State Teachers College, *Field Study Courses in Social Science* (Upper Montclair, N. J.: State Teachers College, 1935), p. 5, cited in Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum, *The Social Studies Curriculum: Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence* (Washington: National Education Association, 1936), pp. 260-61.
9. Based on suggestions by Armin K. Lobeck, "The Organization of Field Excursions," in *Aids to Teaching in the Elementary School: Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals* (Washington: National Education Association, 1934), pp. 274-77; cited in *The Social Studies Curriculum*, p. 277.
10. *The Social Studies Curriculum*, p. 253.
11. *How to Know and How to Use Your Community*, p. 44.
12. See chap. 8.
13. Noah Davenport, "Visiting the Grand Coulee Dam," in C. A. Arndt (chairman), *Americans All: Studies in Intercultural Education: Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association* (Washington: The Department, 1942), p. 213.
14. *Ibid.*, p. 214.

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15. Eldon Mason, "Making School Excursions Worth While," in *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies: Ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies*, ed. by R. West (Cambridge: The Council, 1938), p. 78.
16. *The Social Studies Curriculum*, pp. 254-74.
17. "The Social Studies in General Education" (Progressive Education Association, 1939), chap. x, pp. 16-19. (Mimeographed ed.) This report was written by Robert N. Bush, teacher of the class, and a staff member of the Stanford Social Education Investigation.
18. *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies*, p. 146.
19. Henry Harap, "Outline for a Community Survey," Bulletin No. 64 of the Division of Surveys and Field Studies (Nashville: George Peabody College, 1938), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)
20. Newell D. Eason, "Community Services—A Practical Approach to Social Education" (Social Education Workshop for Victory and Postwar Reconstruction, Stanford University, 1943), pp. 11-12. (Duplicated.)
21. *Op. cit.*, pp. 4-5. Harap's bulletin contains a list of questions to guide in the collection of information for all the areas previously listed. The most complete list of questions for making a community survey will be found in Joanna C. Colcord, *Your Community* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1941). Other guides for making community surveys have been cited in chaps. 2 and 8.
22. Washington: Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1943.
23. "The World at Home," in *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies*, pp. 173-81.
24. Edgar B. Wesley (director), *American History in Schools and Colleges* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1944), pp. 45-54.
25. Some of the above values have been adapted from Edgar B. Wesley, *History at Home*, reprinted from *Minnesota History*, a quarterly magazine of the Minnesota Historical Society (St. Paul, 1938), pp. 15-17; and from Eason, *op. cit.*, p. 17.
26. Many of the above questions have been quoted directly or adapted from Paul R. Hanna, I. James Quillen, and Gladys L. Potter, *Pioneering in Ten Communities* (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1940), pp. 64-71.
27. These are some of the topics recommended in Wesley, *American History in Schools and Colleges*, p. 77.
28. In *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies*, pp. 23-25.
29. Howard K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part XII (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936), *passim*.
30. Stanford Social Education Investigation, "A Statement of Principles on Issues Important in Social Education" (Stanford University: Stanford Social Education Investigation, 1942), pp. 24-25. (Duplicated.)

Chapter 12

1. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1940.
2. "Propaganda Analysis and the Science of Democracy," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, V (June 1941), 250.
3. *Public Opinion* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1922).
4. *Propaganda: Its Psychology and Technique* (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1935), p. 73.
5. *A B C's of Scapegoating* (Chicago: Central Y. M. C. A. College, n.d.).
6. *The Nature of Proof: Thirteenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938), pp. 46-52, 75-86, and *passim*.
7. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1939.
8. New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1929.
9. Howard R. Anderson (ed.). Washington: The Council, 1942.
10. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1940.
11. George H. Gallup and Saul F. Rae, *The Pulse of Democracy: The Public Opinion Poll and How It Works* (New York: Simon & Schuster, 1940).
12. *Op. cit.*
13. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940.
14. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1941.
15. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1939.
16. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1938.
17. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1935.
18. Several suggested activities will be found in Harold D. Lasswell and Howard Cummings, *Public Opinion in War and Peace* ("Problems in American Life" series, Unit 14; Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals and National Council for the Social Studies, 1943).

Chapter 13

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3. These behaviors are described more fully in Grayson N. Kefauver and Edward A. Krug, *Leadership in Social Education: A Guide to In-Service Education for Teachers*, Report of the Stanford Social Education Investigation (Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. [Publication date to be announced]).

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5. National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 17 (Washington: The Council, 1941). See also Wesley's chapter in Phillips, *op. cit.*, pp. 113-24.

6. Edward G. Olsen and others, *School and Community* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., Copyright, 1945), pp. 394-95. Some explanatory material omitted.

7. The volumes of this series, written under the Works Progress Administration, are distributed by various publishers. Information about the volume covering your area can be secured from the local library or bookstore.

8. A list of the organizations providing planned tours with their addresses and a description of the services they provide will be found in Edward G. Olson, "Tours and Travel Courses for Social Studies Teachers," in Phillips, *op. cit.*, pp. 130-42.

9. 2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York City.

10. A word of caution should be sounded for the enthusiastic traveler. Some teachers have been known to capitalize on their interest in a foreign country to such an extent that the whole year's work may center about Mexico, China, or England, as the case may be, to the exclusion of study of other countries and other cultures. They often mistake their own enthusiasm and interests for the needs and interests of their students. Other teachers bore their students with personal reminiscences of "when I was in Europe." Travel should broaden a teacher's interests, not concentrate them upon one country or one area.

11. Some of these points were suggested by A. L. Kerbow, "Graduate Study and In-Service Growth," in Phillips, *op. cit.*, pp. 55-56.

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14. See Denver and Pasadena reports in *ibid.*

15. "Professional Contacts and In-Service Growth," in Phillips, *op. cit.*, pp. 160-69.

16. For an account of regional, state, and local associations, see Phillips, *op. cit.*, pp. 151-64.

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1. These included: Advisory Commission of the National Council for the Social Studies, *The Social Studies Look Beyond the War* (Washington: The Council, 1944); Erling M. Hunt (ed.), *Citizens for a New World: Fourteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies* (Washington: The Council, 1944); Max Lerner, Edna Lerner, and Herbert J. Abraham, *International Organization after the War* ("Problems in American Life" series, Unit 15; Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals and National Council for the Social Studies, 1944); Stanford Workshop on Education for War and Peace, *Education for War and Peace* (Stanford University: Stanford University Press, 1942); Educational Policies Commission, *Education and the People's Peace* (Washington: National Education Association, 1943); William G. Carr (ed.), *International Frontiers in Education,* whole Issue of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXXXV (September 1944); and Walter E. Myer and Clay Coss, *Education for Democratic Survival* (Washington: Civic Education Service, 1942).

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5. For examples of undesirable material, see Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials on Inter-American Subjects, *Latin America in School and College Teaching Materials* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1944).

6. See Ruth Benedict, *Patterns of Culture* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934).

7. See Harold D. Lasswell and Howard Cummings, *Public Opinion in War and Peace* ("Problems in American Life" series, Unit 14; Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals and National Council for the Social Studies, 1943).

8. California Department of Education, *A Study in World Friendship; Designing a Symbol for the United Nations*, Bulletin, Vol. XIII, No. 1 (Sacramento: The Department, 1944).

9. See chap. 16.

10. For fuller discussion of the responsibilities of the social-studies teacher in economic education, see Harold F. Clark (ed.), *Economic Education: Eleventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies* (Washington: The Council, 1940); and the Committee on the Function of the Social Studies in General Education, *The Social Studies in General Education* (New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1940), chap. vi.

11. *Paths to Better Schools: Twenty-third Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators* (Washington: The Association, 1945), p. 96.

12. For further suggestions see *The Social Studies in General Education*. pp. 203-15.

13. *Ibid.*, p. 217. For a fuller discussion of consumer education, see John M. Cassels, "The Consumer Approach to Economics," in *Economic Education*, pp. 60-67; and Herman Gall, "What Social Studies Teachers Can Do," in James E. Mendenhall and Henry Harap (eds.), *Consumer Education* (New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1943), pp. 135-48.

14. For further suggestions in this area see the publications of the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

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In addition to a general statement on the importance of formulating and defining objectives, this book shows the relationship of objectives to the evaluation program and the construction of testing devices. An analysis of the objective being evaluated accompanies each test described.

WESLEY, EDGAR B. *Teaching the Social Studies.* 2d ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1942.

Chapter IX contains a good description of objectives and summarizes those stated by other authorities.

WRIGHTSTONE, J. WAYNE, and CAMPBELL, DOAK S. *Social Studies and the American Way of Life.* Evanston: Row, Peterson & Co., 1942.

Chapter I is a brief statement of democratic ideals and practices in the school and community and of the major objectives of social education in relation to the development of effective citizens in a democracy.

Bibliography for Chapter 4

CASWELL, HOLLIS L. (ed.). *The American High School: Its Responsibility and Opportunity.* Eighth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946.

This yearbook not only analyzes the issues which must be faced by the high school but proposes a curriculum organization to meet the developmental tasks of youth.

CASWELL, HOLLIS L., and CAMPBELL, DOAK S. *Curriculum Development.* New York: American Book Co., 1935.

Chapter VII is an excellent discussion of the various ways used in defining the scope of the curriculum.

COMMISSION ON THE RELATION OF SCHOOL AND COLLEGE, PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story.* "Adventure in American Education," V. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943.

Describes the curriculum developed by the Thirty Schools as a result of their eight years' experience in reorganization.

COMMISSION ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM. *The Social Studies Curriculum.* Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington, D. C.: The Department, 1936.

Chapters VI, VII, and VIII discuss the organization of the social studies and grade placement, and cite particular programs as illustrative.

COMMITTEE ON THE FUNCTION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN GENERAL EDUCATION

FOR THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM (PROGRESSIVE EDU-
CATION ASSOCIATION). *The Social Studies in General Education.* New York:
D. Appleton-Century Co. 1940.
The scope of the curriculum is defined in terms of immediate personal-
social relationships, social-civic relationships, economic relationships, and
personal living. The needs of adolescents in each of these areas determine
the curricular experiences which the committee suggests.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Education for All American Youth.* Wash-
ington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1944.
The book attempts to analyze the needs of youth in two hypothetical Amer-
ican communities—"Farmville" and "American City"—and to design a
curriculum for meeting those needs. Challenging and provocative, this book
points the way to a fundamental reorganization of the secondary school. A
state system of youth education is also proposed.

GILES, H. H.; McCUTCHEN, S. P.; and ZECHIEL, A. N. *Exploring the Curric-
ulum.* "Adventure in American Education," II. New York: Harper &
Bros., 1942.
Chapter II discusses general problems in organizing the curriculum, and
Chapter III gives specific samples of scope and sequence as worked out in
selected school systems.

GWYNN, J. MINOR. *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends.* New York: The
Macmillan Co., 1943. ·
In Part IV the author analyzes the secondary-school curriculum and presents
recent trends in curriculum development.

HARAP, HENRY (chairman). *The Changing Curriculum.* Tenth Yearbook of
the Joint Committee on Curriculum of the Department of Supervisors and
Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association and the
Society for Curriculum Study. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937.
Chapter IV contains an excellent discussion of scope and sequence and the
characteristics of a learning unit.

KRONENBERG, HENRY (ed.). *Programs and Units in the Social Studies.* National
Council for the Social Studies, Curriculum Series No. 2. Washington, D.C.:
The Council, 1941.
The scope and sequence of the social-studies program in seventeen school
systems is described as the background for the unit described in detail.

LEONARD, J. PAUL. *Developing the Secondary School Curriculum.* New York:
Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1946. An excellent discussion of trends in curriculum
development, relationship among school subjects, the core curriculum, units
of work and resource units, and evaluating pupil learning.

MacCONNELL, C. M.; MELBY, E. O.; and ARNDT, C. O. *New Schools for a New
Culture.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1943.
Describes in detail the core program at work in a high school.

MARSHALL, LEON C., and GOETZ, RACHEL M. *Curriculum-Making in the Social
Studies.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American
Historical Association, Part XIII. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936.

An excellent account of the meaning and significance of the social processes in curriculum construction.

MICHENER, JAMES A. (ed.). *The Future of the Social Studies: Proposals for an Experimental Social Studies Curriculum.* National Council for the Social Studies, Curriculum Series, No. 1. Cambridge: The Council, 1939.

This volume contains fifteen different programs for the social studies, each developed by a recognized leader in the social-studies field. The programs vary from very conservative to the integrated, pupil-teacher-planned curriculum proposed by S. P. McCutchen.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. *Planning for American Youth.* Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1944.

A summary of *Education for All American Youth* with some important additions, particularly a proposed educational program for Grades VII-IX.

NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS. *General Education in the American High School.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1945.

Part II discusses curriculum organization and general education in operation in a number of high schools in various parts of the United States.

NORTON, JOHN K., and NORTON, MARGARET A. *Foundations for Curriculum Building.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1936.

A comprehensive treatment of foundations for curriculum development from the reason why through the underlying issues to the selecting of the content for the several fields. Chapter VI deals with the social studies.

SPEARS, HAROLD. *The Emerging High School Curriculum and Its Direction.* New York: American Book Co., 1940.

Describes curriculum developments in secondary schools, including the core curriculum. Chapters XII-XV deal with organization of the curriculum.

TYLER, RALPH W. (chairman). *American Education in the Postwar Period, Part I, Curriculum Reconstruction.* Forty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945.

Chapter V, by Hilda Taba, contains a good statement of criteria for selecting and organizing curriculum experiences.

WRIGHTSTONE, J. WAYNE, and CAMPBELL, DOAK S. *Social Studies and the American Way of Life.* Evanston: Row, Peterson & Co., 1942.

Chapter III discusses various types of curriculum organization and gives examples of each.

Bibliography for Chapter 5

ANDERSON, HOWARD R. (ed.). *Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies.* Thirteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1942.

A good discussion of the problem-solving process. Contains many excellent examples of classroom procedures for developing critical thinking.

CASWELL, HOLLIS L., and CAMPBELL, DOAK S. *Curriculum Development.* New York: American Book Co., 1935.

Chapter XV discusses different types of units and criteria for evaluating units.

DAVEY, JOHN R., and HILL, HOWARD C. "The Unit and the Unit Method in the Social Studies," in C. C. BARNES (ed.), *The Contribution of Research to the Teaching of the Social Studies.* Eighth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, Cambridge: The Council, 1937.
The authors review a number of studies comparing unit teaching with other methods for teaching the social studies.

GWYNN, J. MINOR. *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943.
Chapter VII contains a good discussion of the development of the unit technique.

MICHENER, JAMES A. "Participation in Community Surveys as Social Education," in Ruth West (ed.), *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies.* Ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Cambridge: The Council, 1938. Pp. 144-164.
A good discussion of the problems approach and techniques to use in a unit of work in which a community problem is the center of interest.

MICHENER, JAMES A., and LONG, HAROLD M. *The Unit in the Social Studies.* "Harvard Workshop Series," No. 1. Cambridge: Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1940.
A pamphlet of 108 pages which attempts to analyze and synthesize the various definitions of a unit and reach some agreement on unit construction and teaching.

STORMZAND, M. J., and LEWIS, ROBERT H. *New Methods in the Social Studies.* New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1935.
Discusses methods of teaching a unit and classroom techniques with concrete examples.

TRYON, ROLLA M. *The Social Sciences as School Subjects.* Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, Part XI. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935.
Division Five contains an excellent analysis of the approaches to the teaching of the social studies from the standpoint of organizing them for teaching purposes.

WESLEY, EDGAR B. (director). *American History in Schools and Colleges.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1944.
The report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges of the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies. Suggests ways of organizing content for United States history in the elementary school and junior and senior high schools.

Bibliography for Chapter 6

GLASER, EDWARD M. *An Experiment in the Development of Critical Thinking.* "Contributions to Education," No. 843. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941.

This study of the development of critical thinking was also concerned with the larger problem—how the American public schools can educate for responsible and competent citizenship. Four twelfth-grade English classes were used as an experimental group and equated with four classes used as. the control group.

LEARNED, WILLIAM S. and WOOD, BEN D. *The Student and His Knowledge.* Study of the Relations of Secondary and Higher Education in Pennsylvania. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938. The findings of this extensive study challenge the system of units and credits. The authors recommend that academic progress be governed by demonstrated achievements rather than by conventional time standards.

LEONARD, J. PAUL, and EURICH, ALVIN C. (eds.). *An Evaluation of Modern Education.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1942. Describes techniques for evaluating the knowledge, skills, and attitudes which are considered important in modern education, and the changes which take place in student behavior as a result of new curriculum and new types of learning experiences.

SMITH, EUGENE R.; TYLER, RALPH W.; and the EVALUATION STAFF. *Appraising and Recording Student Progress.* "Adventure in American Education," III. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942. Most of the tests and techniques used in the study of the comparative value of the approaches to the teaching of the social studies were developed by the Eight-Year Study and are fully described in this volume.

WILSON, HOWARD E. *Education for Citizenship.* A Report of the Regents' Inquiry. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. This volume is a report on the civic competence of the students in New York schools, and recommendations concerning the type of program which should be provided.

WRIGHTSTONE, J. WAYNE. *Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. Compares methods used in experimental and conventional high schools and the success of those methods as revealed in pupil performance in a number of controlled situations.

Bibliography for Chapter 7

ALBERTY, HAROLD. *Reorganizing the High School Curriculum.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1947. Students preparing to teach and teachers in service will find this discussion of unit organization and teaching particularly helpful. The sections on the structure of the curriculum and the evolving core curriculum are likewise valuable.

COMMISSION ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM. *The Social Studies Curriculum.* Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington, D. C.: The Department, 1936. Chapter IX contains examples of units of work.

GILES, H. H.; MCCUTCHEN, S. P.; and ZECHIEL, A. N. *Exploring the Curricu-lum.* "Adventure in American Education," II. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

Discusses the importance of preplanning in determining scope and sequence and in planning source units. The value of pupil-teacher planning is also discussed.

Group Planning in Education. 1945 Yearbook of the Association for Super-vision and Curriculum Development. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1945.

Discusses pupil-teacher planning and gives concrete examples of how group planning works in the classroom.

HAEFNER, JOHN H., and OTHERS. *Housing America: A Source Unit for the Social Studies.* National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 14. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1940.

This unit contains an analysis of the problem as well as suggestions for activities, evaluation, and materials to be used in teaching the unit.

HARAP, HENRY (chairman). *The Changing Curriculum.* Tenth Yearbook of the Joint Committee on Curriculum of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association and the Society for Curriculum Study. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937.

Chapters V and VII discuss the importance of planning in curriculum development.

KRONENBERG, HENRY (ed.). *Problems and Units in the Social Studies.* National Council for the Social Studies, Curriculum Series No. 2. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1941

Seventeen social-studies teaching units are described in detail by the teachers who developed and taught them. Twelve of the units are for classes in secondary schools.

MISNER, PAUL (chairman). *Group Planning in Education.* 1945 Yearbook of the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association. Washington, D. C.: The Department, 1945.

The excellent illustration of the value of group planning in educating young people for democratic group living makes this yearbook a particu-larly valuable one. While some of the chapters deal with pupil-teacher planning, several of them show how teachers "learn to plan by planning."

MYER, WALTER E., and COSS, CLAY. *Education for Democratic Survival.* Washington, D. C.: Civic Education Service, 1942.

Suggests a series of twelve units for developing an understanding of con-temporary problems. The authors also make challenging recommendations for reorganizing the school's program so that more attention can be given to contemporary problems.

"Problems in American Life Series." A Series of Resource Units for Teachers in Secondary Schools. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Second-ary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies, 1942-45.

The twenty-two different resource units in this series were each prepared
by an authority on the subject of the particular unit; and the teaching
aids were written by competent and experienced teachers.

QUILLEN, I. JAMES. *Using a Resource Unit.* Washington, D. C.: National
Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for
the Social Studies, 1942.

A short pamphlet prepared to accompany the resource units in the
"Problems in American Life Series." It contains an explanation of a
resource unit and how it can be used in developing a teaching unit.

Santa Barbara County Curriculum Guide for Teachers in Secondary Schools.
Santa Barbara: The Schauer Printing Studio, 1941.

Contains descriptions of several resource and teaching units.

SPEARS, HAROLD (chairman). *Leadership at Work.* Fifteenth Yearbook of the
Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National
Education Association. Washington, D. C.: The Department, 1943.

Many of the chapters in this yearbook point out the need for preplanning
and the value of coöperative planning of teachers and administrators and
teachers and students.

STRATEMEYER, F. B.; FORKNER, H. L.; and McKIM, M. G. *Developing a
Curriculum for Modern Living.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teach-
ers College, Columbia University, 1947.

This book has great value for curriculum workers in pointing out how
teachers and learners, the school and the community, can work together
in developing the curriculum.

WILSON, HOWARD E., and OTHERS. *Teaching the Civil Liberties: A Source Unit.*
National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 16. Washington, D. C.:
The Council, 1941.

One of the first resource units to be published, it contains suggestions for
activities, quotations to use in class discussion, materials, and evaluation.

WIRTH, LOUIS (ed.), *Contemporary Social Problems: A Tentative Formula-
tion for Teachers of Social Studies.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press,
1940.

A good analysis of what makes a social problem by Max Lerner and a
description of a resource unit by the editor. The unit developed, "Hous-
ing," is well analyzed but is lacking in suggestions for activities which can
be carried on in the classroom.

Bibliography for Chapter 8

ANDERSON, HOWARD R. (ed.). *Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social
Studies.* Thirteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social
Studies. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1942.

This yearbook describes the nature and purpose of critical thinking in the
social studies, methods and material for developing skill in critical think-
ing, the use of community resources in developing critical thinking, and
the evaluation of critical thinking.

ARNDT, C. A. (chairman). *Americans All: Studies in Intercultural Education.*

Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association. Washington, D. C.: The Department, 1942.

Written by classroom teachers, many of the contributors to this yearbook describe their own experiences in teaching intercultural relations. Many excellent suggestions are included.

BROOKER, FLOYD E., and HERRINGTON, EUGENE H. *Students Make Motion Pictures.* Washington, D. C.: The American Council on Education, 1941.

Helpful to teachers who plan to make a motion picture as a class activity.

BROWN, SPENCER. *They See for Themselves: A Documentary Approach to Intercultural Education in the High School.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1945.

An excellent description of what the authors call the documentary approach to education, around which all the activities of the class can be organized. The documentary approach usually culminated in a student-written and -produced play. The scripts for three such plays are included in the appendix.

COMMITTEE ON THE FUNCTION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN GENERAL EDUCATION FOR THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM (Progressive Education Association). *The Social Studies in General Education.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940.

This book contains many suggestions for organizing social-studies content around student needs and problems.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book of Civic Education.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940.

This volume is rich in suggestions for democratic procedures in the classroom. It contains many descriptions of techniques used in actual classroom situations.

FREDERICK, ROBERT W., and SHEATS, PAUL H. *Citizenship Education Through the Social Studies.* Evanston: Row, Peterson & Co., 1936.

Chapter VI, "How Shall Subject Matter Be Organized for Teaching?" Contains a discussion of unit development with sample plans for teaching a unit.

GILES, H. H. *Teacher-Pupil Planning.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1941.

Principles of pupil-teacher planning are illustrated by descriptions of classroom situations. Examples of units of work are also given.

HARAP, HENRY (chairman). *The Changing Curriculum.* Tenth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association and the Society for Curriculum Study. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937.

Chapter VII deals with the development of units of learning experience.

KRONENBERG, HENRY (ed.). *Programs and Units in the Social Studies.* National Council for the Social Studies, Curriculum Series No. 2. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1941.

Many of the units describe classroom procedures used by skilled teachers in initiating, developing, or culminating a unit.

KRUG, EDWARD, and ANDERSON, G. LESTER (eds.). *Adapting Instruction in the Social Studies to Individual Differences.* Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1944.

Suggestions are made in most of the chapters for classroom procedures to use in meeting the needs of individual students.

MYER, WALTER E., and COSS, CLAY. *Education for Democratic Survival.* Washington, D. C.: Civic Education Service, 1942.

Contains excellent suggestions for class organization, for committee work, and for materials of instruction.

"Problems in American Life Series." Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies, 1942-45.

A series of twenty-two source units prepared jointly by a recognized social scientist and a master social-studies teacher. The excellent teaching aids in these units are organized similarly to the pattern suggested in this chapter.

Santa Barbara County Curriculum Guide for Teachers in Secondary Schools. Santa Barbara: The Schauer Printing Studio, 1941.

Contains descriptions of units developed and taught by teachers in Santa Barbara County.

SMITH, DONNAL V. *Social Learning.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. Chapter IV, "The Unit," is a discussion of unit teaching with examples of units at several grade levels; Chapter VI, "Teacher Technique," contains a verbatim account of a "Problems of Democracy" class in which a controversial subject is discussed.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF EDUCATION FACULTY. *Education in Wartime and After.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1943.

Chapters III and VIII are particularly suggestive for classroom procedures to use in unit instruction, but many of the other chapters also contain specific helps.

STOLPER, BENJAMIN J. R., and FENN, HENRY C. *Integration at Work.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. The subtitle of the book, "Six Greek Cities: An Experience with Social Studies, Literature, and Art in the Modern High School," tells the area with which the book deals. This account of an actual teaching experience is rich in suggestions for teachers doing coöperative teaching as well as for teachers working in a fused program.

SUBCOMMITTEE ON UNITED STATES HISTORY AND CIVICS OF THE GENERAL EDUCATION COMMITTEE. *Improvement of Instruction in the Required Course in Citizenship in California High Schools.* Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1941.

Contains many suggestions for activities, instructional materials, and evaluation to use in teaching American history.

TYLER, RALPH W. (chairman). *American Education in the Postwar Period, Part I, Curriculum Reconstruction.* Forty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945.

Specific suggestions for unit development are given in the chapters on consumer education, health education, work and service experience, use of natural resources, community education, and education for international understanding.

WESLEY, EDGAR BRUCE. *Teaching the Social Studies.* 2d ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1942.

Many of the chapters in this book are excellent on teaching procedures.

Bibliography for Chapter 9

CLARK, HAROLD F. (ed.). *Economic Education.* Eleventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1940.

Chapter X of this yearbook, by A. W. Troelstrup, contains a rather complete, annotated list of useful materials published before 1940.

COAN, OTIS W., and LILLARD, RICHARD G. *America in Fiction.* Rev. ed. Stanford University: Stanford University Press, 1945.

An annotated list of novels, short stories, and American folklore that interpret aspects of life in the United States both historically and contemporaneously. The book is divided into the following sections: pioneering, farm and village life, industrial America, politics and public institutions, religion, minority groups, and suggestions for background reading.

DALE, EDGAR. *How to Read a Newspaper.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1941.

A very useful guide to teaching the reading of newspapers. It contains many practical suggestions.

DUTCHER, GEORGE M., *et al. A Guide to Historical Literature.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1937.

This is a comprehensive annotated bibliography of historical writing. Prepared primarily for the use of teachers, libraries, and graduate students.

FARGO, LUCILE F. *The Library in the School.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1939.

An excellent book on the rôle of the library in the school.

FREDERICK, R. W., and SHEATS, P. H. *Citizenship Education Through the Social Studies.* Evanston: Row, Peterson & Co., 1936.

Chapter XI, "What Equipment and Materials Are Necessary for the Social Studies Laboratory?" contains many valuable suggestions for teachers.

KRONENBERG, HENRY; TRYON, ROLLA M.; and NUTTER, HAZEL E. *Pamphlets on Public Affairs for Use in Social Studies Classes.* National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 8. Washington: The Council, 1937.

A carefully annotated list of inexpensive, easily available pamphlets suitable for classroom use. Pamphlets are arranged in alphabetical order according to the organization publishing them. A topical index is also included. Government pamphlets are not included.

LENROW, ELBERT. *Reader's Guide to Prose Fiction.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940.

Carefully selected and annotated list of novels arranged topically.

LOGASA, HANNAH. *Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for History Classes in Junior and Senior High School.* Rev. ed. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1941.

One of the best annotated lists of fiction material available.

MURRA, WILBUR F., and OTHERS. *Bibliography of Textbooks in the Social Studies for Elementary and Secondary Schools.* National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 12. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1939.

A list is included of all social-studies textbooks published before March 1, 1939, which bear a last copyright date not earlier than 1932. The bibliography is conveniently divided into seventeen sections according to the various social studies and the levels for which the books are best suited.

MYER, WALTER E., and COSS, CLAY. *Education for Democratic Survival.* Washington, D. C.: Civic Education Service, 1942.

Contains an excellent discussion of the newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, and books which should be in the classroom library of classes studying contemporary social problems.

Social Education, published monthly as the official magazine of the National Council for the Social Studies. Reviews current books, pamphlets, and government publications.

Social Studies, published monthly by the McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia, Pa. Carries a section in which new books and pamphlets are reviewed.

STRANG, RUTH, et al. *Gateway to Readable Books.* New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1944.

An annotated graded list of books in many fields for adolescents who find reading difficult.

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS, MONTHLY CATALOG. Issued by the Superintendent of Documents. Washington, D. C.: United States Printing Office.

This *Catalog* provides a comprehensive listing of all of the publications issued by the various departments and agencies of the federal government. The yearly subscription price is $2.25. The Superintendent of Documents supplies long lists and descriptions of materials on request. Other departments of the government also supply free of charge a list of the materials which they publish and sell at a low charge or provide without cost.

WESLEY, EDGAR B. *Reading Guide for Social Studies Teachers.* National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 17. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1941.

An annotated list of books for teachers. References are well selected and helpfully annotated. Books included were chosen on the basis of (1) readability, (2) pertinence to the work of social-studies teachers, (3) scholarliness and (4) recency.

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WILSON, FLORENCE H. and HOWARD E. *Bibliography of American Biography, Selected and Annotated for Secondary Schools.* National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 5. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1930. A rather old but still useful list.

Bibliography for Chapter 10

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION. *Selected Educational Motion Pictures.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1942.
This encyclopedia of over 450 films selected for school use presents information about the most valuable and readily available classroom films on the market today. The data given about each film include where it may be obtained, a clear and comprehensive content description, and an evaluation of the film in terms of educational objectives as reported by classroom teachers on the basis of actual use. Supplements published annually.

DALE, EDGAR. *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching.* New York: The Dryden Press, 1946.
An excellent discussion of the place of audio-visual education in the classroom and of the methods to use in teaching.

Educational Film Catalogue. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1936–.
Quarterly supplements are published covering all new films plus an annual and a biennial cumulative volume. These catalogues contain brief content descriptions and evaluation, but cover a wider range than the American Council encyclopedia.

Free Films Source Directory. New York: De Vry Corporation, 1111 West Armitage Avenue.
This directory lists films that may be secured on loan from private agencies and government departments.

HARRISON, MARGARET. *Radio in the Classroom.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937.
The conclusions drawn in this book on the use of radio in the classroom were arrived at after three years of study of actual use of radio as a supplementary tool of education, especially in rural and small-town schools.

HARTLEY, WILLIAM H. (ed.). *Audio-Visual Materials and Methods in the Social Studies.* Eighteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1947.
A comprehensive coverage of the whole area of audio-visual aids for use in teaching the social studies.

————. *Selected Films for American History and Problems.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940.
This is a basic book for social-studies teachers on the use of motion pictures. It evaluates a large number of films and provides basic information on their use. A *1945 Supplement* is available.

————. "Sight and Sound in Social Studies," *Social Education.*
This monthly feature in *Social Education* describes new motion pictures, still films, maps, radio notes, recordings, and helpful articles on the use of visual aids.

HOBAN, CHARLES F., JR. *Focus on Learning*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1942.

This book is based on five years of actual use and evaluation of motion pictures in selected schools throughout the country. It describes the experience of teachers in using films, the reaction of students, the rôle of motion pictures in the classroom, the types of educational films and their contributions to the learning process, and the responsibilities of teachers in selecting and using films.

HOBAN, CHARLES F.; HOBAN, CHARLES F., JR.; and ZISMAN, SAMUEL B. *Visualizing the Curriculum*. New York: Cordon Co., 1937.

Contains many helpful suggestions concerning maps, charts, diagrams, graphs, and other visual aids.

KOON, CLINE M. *Sources of Visual Aids and Equipment for Instructional Use in Schools*. Pamphlet No. 80. Rev. ed. Washington, D. C.: United States Office of Education, 1937.

This pamphlet contains a rather complete list of sources of stereograph and lantern slides, film strips, still-film materials, museums, etc.

McKOWN, HARRY C., and ROBERTS, ALVIN D. *Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940.

This book reviews the whole rôle of visual aids in the classroom and answers many of the questions which teachers have on where to obtain them, what types to use, and how to use them most effectively.

MODLEY, RUDOLF. *How to Use Pictorial Statistics*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1937.

This is probably the best discussion available of how to make and use pictorial statistics of all kinds.

NOEL, FRANCIS W. *Projecting Motion Pictures in the Classroom*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1941.

Contains helpful suggestions on the mechanics of classroom projection.

Social Studies, a monthly magazine for teachers and administrators. Each month publishes a department entitled "Visual and Other Aids" in which current movies, film strips, recordings, and publications dealing with audio-visual aids are reviewed.

SOCIETY FOR VISUAL EDUCATION. *Catalogue*. Chicago: Society for Visual Education, 100 E. Ohio Street.

These catalogues contain comprehensive lists of film strips (pictorials), many of which are on history and geography. Kodachrome slides of the United States and the world are also listed.

The 1000 and One: The Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films. Chicago: Educational Screen, 60 East Lake Street.

This is an excellent inexpensive listing of films available, but contains no evaluations and only very brief content descriptions.

TOWNSEND, MARY E. and STEWART, ALICE G. *Audio-Visual Aids for Teachers*. Social Science Service Series, II. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1937.

A list of sources containing more description of the character of the offerings than is found in the government pamphlet by Koon.

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UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION. *Directory of the United States Government Films.* Washington, D. C.: United States Office of Education, 1940.
This directory lists films distributed by the various departments and agencies of the federal government.

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CHAMBERS, M. M., and BELL, HOWARD W. *How to Make a Community Youth Survey.* Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1939.
This pamphlet will be a useful guide for schools which undertake to make a community survey.

COLCORD, JOANNA C. *Your Community: Its Provision for Health, Education, Safety, and Welfare.* 2d ed. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1941.
This book will be a valuable aid to social-studies teachers who undertake to study the community. It suggests the type of information which might be assembled and studied by students in order "to attack the problem of supplying community lacks and improving existing services."

COMMITTEE ON THE FUNCTION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN GENERAL EDUCATION FOR THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM (PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION). *The Social Studies in General Education.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940.
Chapter VIII discusses the importance of using community resources, techniques of community study, and the place of community study in the curriculum.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book of Civic Education.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1940.
Chapter V, "School Activities in the Community," gives examples of valuable educational experiences which youth can have in community service.

HANNA, PAUL R., and OTHERS. *Youth Serves the Community.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936.
This volume is rich in suggestions for ways in which youth can serve the community and of community resources which can be used effectively in the education of the young citizen.

LYND, ROBERT S. and HELEN M. *Middletown: A Study of American Culture.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1929.
A study of a contemporary American city, this book offers many suggestions to classroom teachers on how the community can be used as a social-studies laboratory.

————. *Middletown in Transition: A Study in Cultural Conflicts.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1937.
A sequel to the first volume on *Middletown*, it brings down to date the earlier work. In many ways it is the better of the two volumes and more stimulating.

MACKENZIE, GORDON N., and PARKER, J. CECIL (chairmen). *Toward a New Curriculum: Extending the Educational Opportunity of Children, Youth, and Adults, 1944 Yearbook.* Washington, D. C.: Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association, 1944.

The chapter by Charles E. Prall, "Community Organization and Co-operation," points out ways in which communities have coöperated with schools in extending educational opportunities and the responsibilities of school personnel in community organization and coöperation. The chapter by Maurice E. Troyer, "Educating Through Community Service," cites many examples of how youth in school can serve the community as part of their regular school work.

OLSEN, EDWARD G., and OTHERS. *School and Community*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946.
 This book is a gold mine of practical suggestions for using the community for instructional purposes.

SPEARS, HAROLD (chairman). *Leadership at Work*. Fifteenth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association. Washington, D. C.: The Department, 1943.
 The chapter by Rudolph Lindquist, "Community Projects," gives concrete examples of how boys and girls "get their education through their participation in community activities."

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION FACULTY. *Education in Wartime and After*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1943.
 Chapter V, "School and Community in Wartime," points out ways in which school and community can work together and gives specific suggestions for community activities.

THORNDIKE, EDWARD L. *Your City*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1939.
 This book contains the result of a three-year statistical study of the factors making for the "good life" in a community in which more than three hundred cities were studied. It will be interesting to those who wish to apply the "Ten-Item Yardstick" to their own community.

TYLER, RALPH W. (chairman). *American Education in the Postwar Period*, Part I, *Curriculum Reconstruction*. Forty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945.
 Chapter X by Maurice F. Seay, "The Community-School Emphases in Postwar Education," is an excellent chapter on the rôle of the school in the community. It emphasizes why community interests should be stressed in the curriculum of the postwar period and gives many examples of activities centered on community problems.

WARNER, W. LLOYD, and LUNT, PAUL S. *The Social Life of a Modern Community*. "Yankee City Series," I. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941.
 Many of the techniques for studying community life were used in making the survey of an old New England community and are described in detail in this volume, the first of a series of six in the "Yankee City Series."

WEST, RUTH (ed.). *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies*. Ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Cambridge: The Council, 1938.
 Almost all of the material included in this yearbook gives a record of what many community-centered schools are actually doing. It was planned with

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the specific purpose of giving the busy social-studies teacher concrete examples of how he could use community resources.

Bibliography for Chapter 12

ALBIG, WILLIAM. *Public Opinion.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939.

A thorough treatment of the nature of public opinion and its relationship to propaganda, radio, movies, press, graphic arts, and the social forces which make special pleading inevitable.

CHASE, STUART. *The Tyranny of Words.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1938.

An introduction to semantics, revealing how effective are undefined words when put to propaganda uses, especially those involving "name calling" and "glittering generalities."

DOOB, LEONARD. *Propaganda: Its Psychology and Technique.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1935.

A psychologist presents a thorough and comprehensive treatment of propaganda as a means of social control and as a method by which individuals and groups work for their own interests. He sees propaganda as "good" and "bad."

EDWARDS, VIOLET. *Group Leader's Guide to Propaganda Analysis.* New York: The Institute for Propaganda Analysis, 1938.

This volume shows how to relate propaganda analysis to the high-school and college curriculum, especially to English, social studies, science, art, music, and home economics. It contains methods developed by teachers coöperating with the Institute for Propaganda Analysis. It assumes that propagandas are both "good" and "bad."

ELLIS, ELMER (ed.). *Education Against Propaganda.* Seventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Cambridge: The Council, 1937.

This book deals with the implications of propaganda for education, with special emphasis on social studies in American schools today. It implies that propaganda is bad.

INSTITUTE FOR PROPAGANDA ANALYSIS. *Propaganda Analysis.* Vols. 1 and 11. New York: Institute for Propaganda Analysis, 1937.

These volumes reveal propaganda methods, illustrate them with current propagandas, and outline methods of analysis. The Institute appraised propagandas in terms of democratic freedoms—political, economic, social, and religious, as set forth in the United States Constitution or in federal statutes.

LASSWELL, H. D., and CUMMINGS, HOWARD. *Public Opinion in War and Peace: How Americans Make Up Their Minds.* "Problems in American Life," Unit No. 14. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies, 1943.

In addition to an analysis of the ways in which public opinion is formed, this unit contains an excellent annotated bibliography and good suggestions for teaching problems related to public opinion.

LEE, ALFRED McCLUNG. *The Daily Newspaper in America: The Evolution of a Social Instrument.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1937.

Chapter X, which discusses the relation of advertising to news, and Chapter XII, dealing with press agents and legal controls of the press, are enlightening revelations of the newspaper as a propaganda medium.

ODEGARD, PETER. *The American Public Mind.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1930.

An easy-to-read analysis of public opinion. The eleven brief chapters take the "mysticism" out of the phrase "public opinion."

RAND, H., and LEWIS, R. *Film and School.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937.

The authors show moving pictures as instruments that present information, stimulate interest, and help develop social attitudes; and they discuss the influence of moving pictures on the conduct of children, youths, and adults.

Bibliography for Chapter 13

COMMISSION ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM. *The Social Studies Curriculum.* Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington D. C.: The Department, 1936.

Chapter XIII is entitled "Evaluating Outcomes of the Social Studies Curriculum." In this chapter, the difficulties which a school encounters in setting up a program of evaluation in any area are discussed. A wide variety of tests in the social studies, measuring thirteen different outcomes, are reviewed.

COMMITTEE ON THE FUNCTION OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN GENERAL EDUCATION FOR THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM (PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION). *The Social Studies in General Education.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1940.

Chapter IX, written by Dr. Hilda Taba, is an excellent discussion of the steps to take in developing an evaluation program for the social studies, the new techniques which have been developed, and the importance to the social studies of a sound program of evaluation.

DRAKE, C. ELWOOD. "Trends in the Field of Evaluating Secondary Education," *Educational Administration and Supervision,* XXVI (April 1940), 241-256.

A summary of recent trends in evaluation covering the following topics: historical development, purposes of evaluation, criteria for conducting evaluation programs, procedures in an evaluation program, the intangibles, the criticisms and conflicts in evaluation. A good bibliography is included.

HAWKES, H. E.; LINDQUIST, E. F.; and MANN, C. R. (eds.). *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936.

The first three chapters, by Dr. Ralph Tyler and Dr. Lindquist, discuss objectives to be measured and give practical suggestions on test construction.

KIRKENDALL, LESTER A. "The Problems of an Evaluation Program," *Educational Administration and Supervision,* XXIX (September 1943), 377-382.

This article sets forth ten implications of evaluation, comparing them with the implications of traditional testing programs. It points out that evaluation should be "an expression of an educational philosophy."

REMMERS, H. H., and GAGE, N. L. *Educational Measurement and Evaluation.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1943.

An excellent general discussion of why, what, and how to evaluate, with concrete illustrations and examples. Good bibliography.

SMALLENBERG, HARRY. "Evaluating Pupil Progress," *Educational Leadership,* II (April 1945), 290-293.

A brief, well-written statement on the meaning of evaluation, its rôle in the school program, and the steps to take in setting up an evaluation program.

SMITH, EUGENE R.; TYLER, RALPH W.; and the EVALUATION STAFF. *Appraising and Recording Student Progress.* "Adventure in American Education," III. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

The first section of this book deals with the philosophy, basic assumptions, and principles underlying an evaluation program, and explains the steps to take in formulating an evaluation program.

STANFORD EDUCATION CONFERENCE. *Social Education.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1939.

Chapter XIV, by Alvin C. Eurich, is an excellent brief account of the present status of evaluation, the effect upon curriculum of the testing program, and the development of an adequate evaluation program.

"Symposiums on Evaluation in the Secondary Schools," *California Journal of Secondary Education,* XI (May 1936), 275-304; XIII (March-April, 1938), 137-165, 201-225; XIV (October 1939), 331-361.

In these symposiums on evaluation, the various authors discuss the meaning and purpose of evaluation, its place in the school's program, various techniques used by schools, methods of reporting student progress; they also summarize the literature on evaluation.

TYLER, RALPH W. "Elements of Diagnosis" and "Characteristics of a Satisfactory Diagnosis," *Educational Diagnosis.* Thirty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ind.: Public School Publishing Co., 1936. Pp. 113-129, 95-111.

These two challenging chapters describe the problems involved in building an evaluation program and the use to which such a program can be put. They are brief, well written, and to the point.

————. "General Statement on Evaluation," *Journal of Educational Research,* XXXV (March 1942), 492-501.

In this brief article the author describes the purposes of evaluation, the underlying assumptions in the modern evaluation program, and the procedures involved in setting up such a program. The article is well organized.

WOOD, HUGH B. "Planning a Program of Evaluation," *Curriculum Journal,* VIII (December 1937), 355-359.

In addition to pointing out that evaluation should be made in terms of the objectives of the curriculum, the author stresses especially the importance of the student in the evaluation process. He suggests that evaluation is valid to the extent to which it approaches natural situations, the degree to which the individual accepts the need or purpose of it and coöperates in the process, and the degree to which interrelationships among factors are measured.

WRIGHTSTONE, J. WAYNE. *Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers Coll., Columbia Univ., 1936. This volume contains a good statement of the purposes of evaluation and criteria for conducting an evaluation program.

————. "Evaluation," in W. S. Monroe (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 468-471. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1941. A concise review of the meaning and basic thinking of the evaluation movement as distinguished from earlier work on tests and measurements. It contains a brief listing of the major studies.

Bibliography for Chapter 14

ANDERSON, H. R., and LINDQUIST, E. F. *Selected Test Items in American History.* National Council for the Social Studies. Bulletin No. 6. Rev. ed. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1940. Like the other pamphlets on tests put out by the National Council, this pamphlet contains excellent suggestions for teachers who wish to construct tests to use with their classes.

————. *Selected Test Items in Economics.* National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 11. Cambridge: The Council, 1939. This is a valuable reference for teachers of economics.

————. *Selected Test Items in World History.* National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 9. Rev. ed. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1947. This pamphlet contains excellent suggestions for teacher-made tests in world history.

BUROS, OSCAR K. (ed). *The Nineteen Forty Mental Measurement Yearbook.* Highland Park, N. J.: The Mental Measurement Yearbook, 1941. This book is an encyclopedia of published tests, and brings down to date the yearbooks published earlier. The tests are classified according to subject-matter area or the purposes of the test. The title, a description of the group for which the test was constructed, date, author, publisher, costs, time, reliability, method of construction, and use of the test are reported. The frank criticisms which accompany each test should help teachers select tests more wisely. A new edition is promised for early in 1948.

ELLIOTT, MERLE M. "Patterns of Friendship," *Progressive Education,* XVIII (November 1941), 383-390. This article explains clearly and simply how the friendships in a class can be patterned, and the use which can be made of such a technique in improving individual adjustment and human relationships in a classroom.

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HANNA, LAVONE. "An Evaluation Program for American History," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XX (April 1945), 209-216.
Techniques to be used by a classroom teacher are described.

HAWKES, H. E.; LINDQUIST, E. F.; and MANN, C. R. (eds.). *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936.
The chapter on "Examinations in the Social Studies" discusses the merits and disadvantages of various types of objective tests commonly used in the social studies.

JARVIE, L. L., and ELLINGSON, MARK. *A Handbook on the Anecdotal Behavior Journal*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940.
This is probably the best single reference on anecdotal records. The book describes how to make and summarize the records and the value of keeping them.

Journal of Educational Research, XXXV (March 1942), Entire Issue.
In the articles in this issue, Tyler, Wrightstone, Woods, Eurich, and others discuss the whole problem of evaluation.

LEE, J. MURRAY. *A Guide to Measurement in the Secondary Schools*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936.
A very practical and useful book with many helpful suggestions to teachers for making tests and using evaluation techniques of all kinds. An excellent bibliography of tests is included.

LEONARD, J. PAUL, and EURICH, ALVIN C. (eds.). *An Evaluation of Modern Education*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1942.
Many of the techniques used to evaluate the modern curriculum are described. Many of these have special reference to the social studies.

MORSE, H. T., and McCUNE, G. H. *Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills*. National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 15. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1940.
This pamphlet discusses teaching and measurement of study behaviors; presents sample tests for various skills in reading, library use, map study, graphs, and statistical tables.

NOLL, VICTOR. *The Habit of Scientific Thinking: A Handbook for Teachers*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935.
This is a summary of Noll's work on scientific thinking and contains a full discussion of the habits of scientific thinking, how to teach them, and techniques for measuring scientific thinking. The standardized test on scientific thinking, "What Do You Think," is discussed.

PACE, C. R. "A Situation Test to Measure Social-Political-Economic Attitudes," *Journal of Social Psychology*, X (August 1939), 331-344.
A situation test is proposed as a substitute for attitude scales for measuring attitudes. Experimental data are analyzed to show reliability and validity.

SMITH, EUGENE R.; TYLER, RALPH W.; and the EVALUATION STAFF. *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*. "Adventure in American Education," III. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

This book describes the techniques developed by the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Study for appraising student progress. The chapter on "Evaluation of Social Sensitivity" will be of greatest interest to social-studies teachers, but many of the others are also valuable.

THURSTONE, L. L., and CHAVE, E. J. *The Measurement of Attitude.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1930.

The technique used by Thurstone and his associates in developing the attitude scales is described.

TRYON, CAROLYN M. *Evaluation of Adolescent Personality by Adolescents.* Monograph of the Society for Research in Child Development, IV, No. 4. Washington, D. C.: The Society, 1939.

This pamphlet describes a technique by which adolescents can evaluate each other and by which teachers can gain an insight into adolescent "peer culture."

WRIGHTSTONE, J. WAYNE. *Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936.

In this report, comparing the progress of students in progressive versus traditional schools, Wrightstone has used newer procedures in identifying changes in attitudes, interests, and qualities of thinking, as well as more conventional means of measuring growth in academic areas. Chapter X describes and illustrates newer evaluation techniques in the social studies.

Bibliography for Chapter 15

BROOKS, HAROLD B. "California Develops a Cumulative Guidance Record for Secondary Schools," *Educational Leadership,* II (April 1945), 302-304.

This article describes the cumulative record developed by the California Secondary-School Principals.

Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards. *Evaluation of Secondary Schools: General Report on Methods, Activities, and Results* and *Supplementary Reprints.* Washington, D. C.: The Study, 1939.

Schools interested in appraising the success of their program should be familiar with the criteria and methods of appraisal used by the Committee on Secondary-School Standards.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE AND RESEARCH DIVISION, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. *New Developments in Pupil Report Cards.* Circular No. 4. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1934.

In this pamphlet, the authors summarize and analyze the items on 108 report cards adopted from 1930 to 1934 by various schools. Many types of report cards are reproduced in Part Two.

FIELDSTRA, CLARENCE. "Using Cumulative Records," *Educational Leadership,* II (April 1945), 304-312.

This article discusses the uses of cumulative records in diagnosing pupil needs, counseling and programming, and recommending pupils to college or industry.

FOX, GUY. "Basic Principles of Testing Procedures, Grading Systems, and Pupil Records," *Educational Method,* XV (April 1936), 366-368.

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By comparison of a conservative and progressive school, this article reveals the nature of a modern viewpoint on reporting pupil progress.

HECK, ARCH O. "Records and Reports," in Harry N. Rivlin and Herbert Schuler (eds.), *Encyclopedia of Modern Education*, pp. 665-668. New York: Philosophical Library of New York City, 1943.

A summarization of the trend in records and reports. Contains a short but selective bibliography.

"The High School's New Responsibilities," *The School Review*, LI (March 1943), 129-132.

This article sets forth the need for extensive personnel cumulative records. Examples are given, especially as related to army service. A bibliography of books and pamphlets is included.

LEARNED, WILLIAM S. and WOOD, BENJAMIN D. *The Student and His Knowledge*. Study of the Relations of Secondary and Higher Education in Pennsylvania. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938.

Discusses the methods used in evaluating the relations of secondary and higher education in Pennsylvania research study.

SEGEL, DAVID. *Nature and Use of the Cumulative Record*. United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1938, No. 3. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938.

This bulletin describes the types of cumulative records found in different school systems. Upon the basis of an analysis of their contents and in the light of findings of studies of child development, it makes practical suggestions for cumulative record keeping. It suggests ways of recording different types of items, and outlines the purposes for which the cumulative record may be employed.

SMITH, EUGENE R.; TYLER, RALPH W.; and the EVALUATION STAFF. *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*. "Adventure in American Education," III. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

This book has a number of sections about recording, records, and reports. The general purpose and philosophy of recording, objectives for recording, record keeping, and records are some of the sections well worth reading in connection with the setting up of a record system.

SPAULDING, FRANCIS T. *High School and Life*. A Report of the Regents' Inquiry. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938.

The Regents' Examinations and their effect upon education in the state of New York are discussed in Chapter X. In the appendix will be found a "Plan of Appraisal for Educational Outcomes."

WRINKLE, WILLIAM L. "Reporting Pupil Progress," *Educational Leadership*, II (April 1945), 293-299.

In this article the author reports the results of thirteen years of experimentation with reports to parents.

————. *Improving Marking and Reporting Practices in Elementary and Secondary Schools*. New York: Rinehart & Co., 1947.

This book provides a practical guide for teachers who want to improve their marking and reporting practices.

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ARMSTRONG, W. E.; HOLLIS, E. V.; and DAVIS, H. E. *The College and Teacher Education*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944.
This is a report of the Commission on Teacher Education. It describes the programs of teacher education developed by the colleges and universities participating in the work of the Commission and presents conclusions and recommendations.

BAGLEY, WILLIAM C., and ALEXANDER, THOMAS. *The Teacher of the Social Studies*. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, Part XIV. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937.
The first part of this book considers the selection and preparation of elementary and secondary school social-studies teachers in the United States. Part Two deals with the selection and preparation of European social-studies teachers.

DIEDERICH, PAUL B., and VAN TIL, WILLIAM. *The Workshop*. New York: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge, Inc., 1945.
This pamphlet summarizes the history of the workshop, defines its nature and essential characteristics, and describes how a workshop may be organized and conducted.

HEATON, K. L.; CAMP, W. G.; and DIEDERICH, P. B. *Professional Education for Experienced Teachers: The Program of the Summer Workshop*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940.
This is a critical survey of the nature and effectiveness of the early workshops. The conclusions are highly favorable to the workshop as a means for in-service education.

KEFAUVER, GRAYSON N., and KRUG, EDWARD A. *Leadership in Social Education: A Guide to In-Service Education for Teachers*. A Report of the Stanford Social Education Investigation. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Company, publication planned in 1948.
The first part of this book discusses the in-service education techniques used in the Stanford Social Education Investigation and evidence is presented concerning their relative effectiveness. The second part of the book contains the stories of the experiences of the schools that participated in the Investigation as case studies in in-service education.

PHILLIPS, BURR W. (ed.). *In-Service Growth of Social Studies Teachers*. Tenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Cambridge: The Council, 1939.
This is the best general survey of in-service education for social-studies teachers. Chapter I, by James Michener, is directed to the beginning teacher.

WESLEY, EDGAR B. *Reading Guide for Social Studies Teachers*. National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin No. 17. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1941.
This bulletin contains an annotated bibliography for social-studies teachers. The references included are selected to enable social-studies teachers to direct their own professional growth. Suggestions are made of books to include in the teacher's professional library.

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ADVISORY COMMISSION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES. *The Social Studies Look Beyond the War: A Statement of Postwar Policy.* Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1944.

This is a postwar platform for social-studies teachers. An analysis of major trends and numerous recommendations for action are made.

BRAMELD, THEODORE. *Design for America: An Educational Exploration of the Future of Democracy.* New York: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge, Inc., 1945.

This book reports an experimental project in which students of the Flood-wood High School in Minnesota studied the future of democracy and attempted to define the kind of world they wanted to build. A detailed syllabus is included which will be of considerable help to social-studies teachers in the study of contemporary problems and trends.

BRUBAKER, JOHN S. (ed.). *The Public Schools and Spiritual Values.* Seventh Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944.

The most thorough discussion of education for the development of spiritual values, primarily from the philosophical point of view. The book contains many practical suggestions for teachers.

CARR, WILLIAM G. *Only by Understanding.* "Headline Series" of the Foreign Policy Association, No. 52 (May-June, 1945).

This pamphlet, distributed by Silver, Burdett Company, is an excellent summary of international responsibilities and organization in education. Roy A. Price has a brief statement of the responsibilities of social-studies teachers in the latter part of the pamphlet.

CLARK, HAROLD F. (ed.). *Economic Education.* Eleventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1940.

This yearbook presents a number of points of view on the problem of economic education. Content, organization, and materials are discussed.

COUNTS, GEORGE S. *Education and the Promise of America.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1945.

In this Kappa Delta Pi lecture-series publication, Professor Counts presents his interpretation of the rôle of education in the achievement of the goals for which the American people strive. The book contains a brilliant summary of trends in American culture.

HUNT, ERLING (ed.). *Citizens for a New World.* Fourteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1944.

This book surveys the international situation with special emphasis on world organization. Chapters VI and VII deal specifically with the international responsibilities of education.

LIVINGSTONE, SIR RICHARD. *On Education.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1944.

This book contains Livingstone's *The Future in Education* and *Education for a World Adrift,* both previously published separately in England. While written primarily from the English point of view, these books,

especially the latter, are a brilliant interpretation of the significance of classical culture for modern education.

MENDENHALL, JAMES E., and HARAP, HENRY (eds.). *Consumer Education: Background, Present Status, and Future Possibilities.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1943.

This symposium presents a comprehensive discussion of consumer education. Chapter VIII deals specifically with the contribution of the social-studies teacher. The book contains an excellent annotated bibliography.

Morale for a Free World. Twenty-second Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1944.

This yearbook is concerned with the problem of unity amidst change and diversity. It contains excellent material on education for citizenship.

MYER, WALTER E., and COSS, CLAY. *Education for Democratic Survival.* Washington, D. C.: Civic Education Service, 1942.

This book stresses the crucial need for the study of current issues and problems and provides specific suggestions and annotated bibliographies of materials.

QUILLEN, I. JAMES. "Education for World Citizenship," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science,* CCXXXV (September 1944), 122-127.

This article makes specific recommendations for the development of an educational program to increase international understanding.

TABA, HILDA, and VAN TIL, WILLIAM (eds.). *Democratic Human Relations: Promising Practices in Intergroup and Intercultural Education in the Social Studies.* Sixteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1945.

This is the best manual on intergroup education for social-studies teachers. It is based largely on actual school practices.

THAYER, V. T. *American Education under Fire.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1944.

Dr. Thayer examines certain basic issues confronting American education, states his own philosophy, and defines the task of the modern school as he sees it. He is especially concerned about the relationship between education and values.

UNESCO and You: A Six-Point Program. Prepared at the Secretariat of the U. S. National Commission for UNESCO. Department of State Publication 2904. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947.

This pamphlet includes a brief description of the nature, history, and purposes of UNESCO and a concise program for individual action in local communities. Many suggestions can be applied by social-studies teachers.

VICKERY, WILLIAM E., and COLE, STEWART G. *Intercultural Education in American Schools: Proposed Objectives and Methods.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1943.

This is the best available general manual in the field of intergroup education. It considers objectives, content, and methods. Basic concepts in intercultural education are defined.

APPENDIX I

A Resource Unit

The People of the United States

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I. Introduction

P ROBABLY at no time in the history of the United States has it been so important that young people understand that the United States is a nation of many people and that it is strong and powerful because of the contributions which these people have made to American life. Democracy in the United States is predicated upon a belief in the dignity and worth of the individual. Failure to accept that principle and act in accordance with it makes democracy a mockery. The democratic nations of the world have waged a war to bring freedom to the peoples of all countries. The fact that the United States denies tolerance, freedom, and equality of opportunity to large numbers of its citizens has brought charges from totalitarian nations that "democracy as practiced by Anglo-Americans is stained with the bloody guilt of racial persecution and exploitation."[1] The conditions which make this charge possible must be eradicated if democracy is to survive and if the United States is to remain a great and powerful nation.

Racism and nativism have shown themselves many times in the history of the United States. The Alien-Sedition Acts, the Know Nothing Party, the Ku Klux Klan, the immigration laws, the numerous anti-Catholic and anti-foreign organizations are evidence of intolerance and prejudice. They have intensified class consciousness, widened the breach between foreign-born and American-born children, caused race riots, anti-Semitism, persecution, and injustice. During war and periods of depression, feelings against minority groups become unusually acute as people fear for their security and look for scapegoats on whom to place the blame for their frustrations and failures.

[1] Quoted in "The Negro's War," *Fortune,* XXV (June, 1942), p. 77.

This unit is therefore particularly important during the postwar period when racism and nativism are likely to be intensified. The teachers of United States history have a peculiar opportunity in helping boys and girls understand the diversity of the people who make up the nation, and the rôle which minority groups have played in the development of the United States. This can be done by helping young citizens:[1]

To appreciate the cultural heritage and contributions to American life made by the various races and national groups which comprise the people of the United States;

To understand the discriminations practiced against minority groups and recognize the short-sightedness of such practices;

To understand the fallacy in claims of race superiority;

To understand the causes of racial and national discrimination and exploitation.

II. Anticipated Outcomes

A. *In terms of student behavior*
   1. *Understandings.* The effective democratic student understands:
      a. The characteristics of racial groups
      b. The characteristics of nationalities represented in America
      c. That there are very few pure races
      d. That there are many problems to be solved in connection with the various races and nationalities within our midst
      e. That all Americans, except Indians, are immigrants or descendants of immigrants, and no nationality or racial group has the right to claim superiority over others
      f. That the United States is a great and powerful country because it has welcomed many immigrants and given them liberty and freedom
      g. The contributions each national group has made to the American way of life.
      h. The backgrounds of the various racial groups which make up America
      i. The attempts of America to solve racial and national problems
      j. That our geographical environment plays a large part in determining our culture
      k. That various groups are minority groups, but ultimately they all make up the people of the United States
   2. *Value patterns*—attitudes, appreciations, and interests. A student with good social attitudes:

[1] School of Education Faculty, Stanford University, *Education in Wartime and After*, 1943.

a. Is tolerant of the ideas and opinions of others
b. Treats people of different races and nationalities with courtesy and respect
c. Does not speak disparagingly of people who differ from him socially, economically, or politically
d. Welcomes the contributions which people of foreign extraction make to American life
e. Listens to varying opinions of racial groups
f. Appreciates the cultural contributions of the various national groups
g. Coöperates with others for social advancement and works willingly on committees with various races and nationalities
h. Shares ideas and materials with others
i. Welcomes the contribution of each and every student
j. Does not discriminate in school activities against other racial or national groups
k. Is concerned about the welfare of others
l. Considers the effect of his actions upon other people
m. Places group above personal interests
n. Seeks equal opportunity for all people in America including educational, vocational, political, social, and religious opportunities

3. *Habits, skills, and abilities.* A student with good study skills and work habits:
a. Analyzes and rejects propaganda which stirs up racial antagonisms
b. Runs down rumors and checks their validity before acceptance or repetition
c. Thinks critically about racial and national problems (see "General Objectives")
d. Examines both sides of the question on all issues before reaching a conclusion

B. *In terms of generalizations*
1. Dissatisfaction with conditions as they are causes people to seek new frontiers.
2. Developing a spirit of understanding and appreciation of the various peoples brings about better relations among our peoples.
3. Oppression and bigotry of any type are undesirable.
4. An immigration policy is vital for our national welfare.
5. Many democratic concepts stem from the European cultural tradition.
6. Geographical environment plays a large part in determining the economic, social, and political life of our people.

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7. The weight of scientific evidence does not support the idea of racial superiority.
8. The English language and heritage have been dominant influences in American life.
9. There is a critical need in American life for each individual to practice tolerance toward national groups.
10. Effective functioning of American democracy demands recognition of the value of the individual regardless of race, color, or creed.
11. Recognition of the rights and contributions of minority groups is a cardinal principle of tolerance.
12. All races and nationalities have made a contribution to American life.
13. As we borrow from foreign cultures, the characteristics borrowed are inevitably altered in process so as to harmonize with the existing American culture.

III. Suggested Problems

Teachers who wish to organize the experiences of this unit so that students will have the opportunity to develop the behaviors needed for reflective thinking will want to use the problem-solving approach. Since the ability to state or define the problem is the first step in problem solving, it is important that the students in each class define the problem so that it is most meaningful to them. The problems stated below are, therefore, merely suggestions of how the "overall" problem of the unit might be stated. The teacher should guide the class discussion so that a comprehensive and challenging problem is formulated.
A. How can we best utilize the contributions made by the various racial and national groups to American life?
B. How can we bring unity to the various elements in American life and still provide for cultural diversity?
C. How shall minority groups within the United States be treated and their contributions utilized?
D. How can conflicts between major and minor groups be resolved?

IV. Analysis of Unit

A. What are the minority groups in America?
   1. What racial groups form minority groups?
   2. What national groups are minority groups?
   3. What religious groups can be considered minority groups?
   4. What are the major political groups in American life?
   5. What are the major economic groups?

B. How can the United States solve racial and nationality problems?
   1. What are the racial and national groups in America?
      a. What groups came in colonial times?
         1) From what countries did they come?
         2) Why did they come?
         3) What ideas and ideals did they bring?
         4) What contributions did they make to American life?
      b. What characterized the migrations of the nineteenth century (up to 1890)?
         1) From what countries did the immigrants come?
         2) Why did they come?
         3) What were their major interests?
         4) What areas did they occupy?
         5) What contributions did they make to American life?
      c. What characterized the "new" immigrants after 1890?
         1) What caused the change in immigration?
         2) From what countries did they come?
         3) What problems did they present?
         4) What contributions did they make to American life?
      d. What characterized Oriental immigration to America?
         1) Why did the Chinese come to America?
         2) When and why did the Japanese come?
         3) What problems did Orientals raise which differed from those of other immigrants?
         4) How did California and the United States handle this problem?
         5) What contributions did the Oriental make?
      e. What characterized Negro migration to the United States?
         1) How did the Negroes come to America?
         2) Why did they settle in the South?
         3) Why are the Negroes discriminated against?
         4) In what ways are Negroes discriminated against in the United States?
         5) What contributions have Negroes made to our culture?
      f. What part have Indians played in American life?
         1) In what way has the white man mistreated the Indian?
         2) How civilized were the Indians found by the early colonists?
         3) Why weren't all the Indian tribes assimilated?
         4) What contributions have the Indians made?
      g. What characterized Mexican migration to the United States?
         1) Why did Mexicans come?
         2) Why have they settled in the Southwest?

3) In what way have they been discriminated against?

4) What contributions have they made?

C. How has America attempted to solve racial and nationality problems?

1. Has our immigration policy been a wise one?

   a. What was the immigration policy prior to 1921?

   b. What has been the immigration policy since 1921?

   c. What is our policy toward Orientals?

   d. What is our policy toward refugees?

2. Are our naturalization laws adequate and just?

3. What constitutes our Americanization policy?

   a. What program does the United States have for the education of the foreign-born?

   b. What services do settlement houses, recreation centers, neighborhood houses, and the like perform for the foreign-born?

4. What means have been taken to combat racial, ethnic, and religious persecution?

   a. By organizations?

   b. By legislation?

   c. By communities?

   d. By individuals?

D. How can we solve our nationality and racial problems?

1. How can education help?

2. What legislation do we need?

3. How can the Americanization program be strengthened?

4. What new opportunities should be opened to minority groups?

5. What should be our future policy toward the Oriental? toward other ethnic groups?

6. What is the Negro problem and how can it be solved?

7. What should be our policy toward religious minorities?

V. Suggested Activities

A. *Initiatory*

1. Recordings[1]

   a. "Ballad for Americans." This may be followed by a discussion of racial and national elements which make up American life. (Available in Music Dept.)

   b. "Americans All, Immigrants All"

   c. "I'm an American"

2. Motion pictures [1]

[1] See Section VII, "Suggested Materials," for description of recordings, films, etc.

Pictures selected for introducing the unit should both stimulate interest in the unit and raise many problems and issues. These should be brought out in the discussion following the showing of the picture.

a. "Refugees Today and Tomorrow"

b. "World We Want to Live In"

3. Reading

Have students read "We Americans" from *Building America,* Vol. VI, No. 1, for an overall view.

4. Have each student make a family tree to show who his ancestors were. The information can be gathered from family records and interviews.

5. Have each student write five or more statements of common beliefs about races. These can be used for compiling a beliefs test later. Example of misbeliefs which may be expressed:

a. All Japanese are treacherous.

b. The white race is a superior group.

6. From a list of foreigners: Poles, Mexicans, Swedes, Chinese, Italians, Danes, Russians, English, Norwegians, French, Germans, etc., have each student make a list of the names that stimulate an unfavorable reaction when mentioned. Have a committee tabulate the answers of all class members. Hold a discussion to try to discover the cause for prejudices. It may be due to (1) something they have read, (2) something they heard at school or at home, (3) some experience they have had.

7. Use a Social Distance test[1] to discover attitudes toward particular races and nationalities. This can be developed by making a table listing various races and nationalities in alphabetical order and asking the students to check each in the column which shows the degree to which they would welcome a person belonging to that group:

a. To close kinship by marriage

b. To their club as a personal chum

c. To their street as neighbors

d. To employment in their business

e. To citizenship in the United States

f. To the United States as a visitor only

g. To the United States at all (exclusion)

8. Give the attitude test, Beliefs on Intercultural Relations, found in the evaluation section, to diagnose beliefs and prejudices existing in the group.

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[1] Adapted from Bogardus' Test of Social Distance.

B. *Developmental*
  1. *Reading*
    a. Have a member of the class review the important points of *The Promised Land* or *They Who Knock at Our Gates*, by Mary Antin.
    b. Have a committee read *Americans by Adoption*, by Joseph Husband, and report on great citizens born in foreign lands.
    c. Have an individual read "Thirty Million New Americans," by Louis Adamic, in *Harper's Magazine,* November 1934, pp. 684-94, and make a list of the reasons why it is more difficult for the "new" immigrants to become assimilated than the "old" immigrants.
    d. Magazine articles (consult *Readers' Guide* for most recent articles)
       1) Adamic, Louis, "Thirty Million New Americans," *Harper's,* 169: 684-94, November, 1934
       2) *American Unity.* Published monthly by the Council Against Intolerance in America. All issues contain valuable articles.
       3) "Calling America: Challenge to Democracy," special issue of *Survey Graphic,* 28:54-192, February, 1939
       4) "For Native Sons" (new series called "Freedom's People" dwells on Negro's contribution to United States civilization), *Time,* 38:59, September 29, 1941
       5) Grosvenor, E. A., "The Races of Europe," *National Geographic,* 34:441-534, December, 1918
       6) Helm, M. "Angel Mo' and Her Son, Roland Hayes," *Atlantic,* 170:1-10; 56-62; 79-85; 102-8, August-November, 1942
       7) "Help the Negro to Help Himself," *Ladies' Home Journal,* 58:6, July, 1941
       8) "Jews in America," *Fortune,* 13:79-85+, February, 1936
       9) Locke, A., "Color, Unfinished Business of Democracy," *Survey Graphic,* 31:454-503+, November, 1942
       10) McWilliams, C. "Japanese Out of California," *New Republic,* 106:456-7, April 6, 1942
       11) "The Negro's War," *Fortune,* 25:76-80+, June, 1942
       12) Reddick, L. D. "The Negro in the Building of America," *School and Society,* 53:161-164, February 8, 1941
       13) "Rome Incident," *Time,* 40:17, July 27, 1942
       14) Stewart, Tom, and Biddle, Francis. "Shall We Keep Foreigners Out?—A Debate," *Reader's Digest,* 45:38-43, November, 1944

15) "West Coast Nisei Present a Problem," *Scholastic,* 40:4, March 9, 1942
16) Willkie, Wendell. "Case for the Minorities," *Saturday Evening Post,* 214:14+, June 27, 1942
e. Pamphlets and bulletins[1]
1) *Building America Series*
a) *The American Indians,* Vol. VII, No. 4
b) *We Americans,* Vol. VI, No. 1
c) *Our Minority Groups,* Vol. IX, No. 2
d) *American Democracy in War Time,* Vol. IX, No. 7
2) Council Against Intolerance in America. *An American Answer to Intolerance,* 1939 (116 pages, Teacher's Manual)
3) National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, New York, publishes valuable pamphlet material, much of which is free.
4) *Problems in American Life Series*
Benedict, Ruth, and Ellis, Mildred. *Race and Cultural Relations,* Unit No. 5, 1942
5) *Public Affairs Pamphlets*
Brown E., and Leighton, G. *The Negro and the War,* No. 71, 1942
Benedict, R., and Weltfish, G. *The Races of Mankind,* No. 85, 1943
Brown, E. *Why Race Riots,* No. 87, 1944
McWilliams, C. *What About Our Japanese Americans?* No. 91, 1944
Stewart, M. *Negro in America,* No. 95, 1944
6) Bureau for Intercultural Education, New York
Have a student write for titles of recent publications.
7) United States Office of Indian Affairs, Washington, D.C.
Interesting material on the American Indian available.
8) *University of Chicago Round Table Pamphlets*
a) *Civil Rights,* December 14, 1941
b) *National Unity,* August 17, 1941
c) *Race Tensions,* No. 276, 1943
d) *The Jews,* No. 98
e) *Peace as a World Race Problem,* No. 335, August 20, 1944
9) War Manpower Commission
McNutt, Paul; Nelson, Donald; Knox, Frank; and Patterson, Robert P. *Manpower: One Tenth of a Nation,* 1942
10) Y.M.C.A. pamphlet, *ABC's of Scapegoating,* 19 South LaSalle St., Chicago, Ill., 1944

[1] Consult librarian for latest pamphlet material.

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11) Powdermaker, Hortense, *Probing Our Prejudices*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944

    Have the students read a number of these pamphlets and then make an analysis of what prejudices they have; how prejudices grow; and what can be done to uproot them.
  f. Classroom library. Gather together books on minority groups and establish a classroom library. Encourage the students to read widely. (See bibliography.)
  g. Textbooks. Use textbooks for background material and for an overview of the historical background for the present problems in intercultural relations.
2. *Maps*
  a. Have a committee indicate, in color, on a world map: the distribution of the various nationalities in the United States, and the places from which they came. (Refer to Brown and Roucek, *Our Racial and National Minorities.*)
  b. "America a Nation of Many People from Many Lands" is a valuable map for showing race distribution. (Council Against Intolerance in America, 17 E. 42nd Street, New York) This should be displayed in the class during the study of the unit.
  c. For individual work or a committee: maps can be made showing how the United States depends upon other countries for (a) raw materials, and (b) markets.
  d. Have a committee make a map showing the various outstanding cultural contributions by nationalities. By the use of the same map, it could be shown that culture has no natural boundaries.
3. *Committee work*
  a. Have a committee take a school survey of nationalities.
      a) Nationality of the parents, grandparents
      b) When they came to America
      c) What problems they faced in the new world
      d) Where they settled. This might be shown on an outline map.
  b. Have a committee make an analysis of the groups which make up (1) the school, (2) the community, (3) Los Angeles County, and chart their findings.
  c. Divide the group into committees according to the nationality of their ancestors. Each committee can then gather information about the members of their nationality group.
      1) Their reason for coming to America
      2) Their outstanding personalities
      3) Their cultural contributions

d. If the unit is being studied during the second quarter, have a committee work out a program presenting the Christmas customs of various national groups. Such a plan would be valuable for showing customs which are common to many different groups of people as well as the characteristics which are peculiar to them.

e. A committee might—
1) Discuss the significance of special holidays in America and foreign countries.
2) Celebrate the birthdays of outstanding men and women of foreign birth and other races who have made unusual contributions to the discovery of America.

f. A committee might trace the ancestry of twenty-five outstanding men and women of the United States in order to determine what countries contributed leaders in the building of our nation.

g. A committee might be responsible for a bulletin board on which items relating to foreign nationalities in the United States would be posted.

4. *Written work*
a. Suggested titles for newspaper stories or editorials:
1) "Latest Arrivals to America"
2) "Why Edward Bok Made Good"
3) "What the Immigrant Has to Offer America"
b. Suggested titles for themes:
1) "Treatment of the Indian"
2) "The Reaction of Different Racial Groups Toward Each Other in Our Country"
3) "Our Negro Poets"
4) "My America and Yours"
5) "The Attitude Americans Should Have Toward Immigrants"
6) "Using Human Cultural Resources to Best Advantage"
7) "Democracy Means Equal Opportunity for All Regardless of Race or Color"
8) "Contributions of ————————— to the United States"

5. *Graphs*
a. A student might make a graph showing the number of foreign-born from the world's chief nations living in the United States in 1940.
b. Another student might make a similar graph for 1890.
c. To show the relation to the Immigration Laws of the United States:

1) A committee might make a graph showing the increase of immigrants into the United States from 1890 to 1920.

2) Another committee might make a graph showing immigration into the United States from 1920 to 1940.

3) By comparison, valuable generalizations can be drawn.

6. *Excursions* (see m, no from Dr. Klopp to high-school principals and teachers, dated May 26, 1944, re "Teacher-Pupil-Community Relations.")

   a. To different churches: a synagogue, a mosque, a Greek Orthodox church, a Buddhist temple, etc. Study architecture, religious service.

   b. To a port of entry

   c. To a federal court to observe the induction of new citizens

   d. To an Americanization class

   e. To art galleries to study the contributions of various national groups

   f. To Chinatown

   g. To Olivera Street, Los Angeles

   h. To Padua Hills

   i. To an Indian Powwow at Inglewood

   j. To foreign eating places

7. *Group projects*

   a. A day might be spent on folk songs of various nations.

   b. Students might plan to have foreign dishes prepared by members of the class who prize certain dishes of their foreign ancestry. Or they might compile a cookbook of recipes from foreign countries which they know and like.

   c. Students might form a Stamp Club, World Club, Current Event Club, or other kinds of clubs which give opportunity for discussing a variety of countries.

   d. Special occasions, such as "Negro History Week," "World Goodwill Day," "Pan-American Day," and others would give opportunity for planning discussions of intercultural contributions. The days to be emphasized depend upon the time of year the unit is studied.

   e. The class might plan an exhibit of articles from foreign countries.

8. *Outside speakers.* Students might ask interesting people to speak to the class.

   a. Consuls

   b. Refugees who have settled here

   c. Returned missionaries

    d. Heads of households of families who appreciate their foreign ancestry

9. *Radio programs* (Consult Listener's Radio Program Guide, issued by the Audio-Visual Department)
    a. University of Chicago Round Table
    b. These Are Americans
    c. They Call Me Joe

10. *Panel or symposium* Have students plan a panel or symposium on:
    a. Reasons Why America Is Regarded by Many as the "Promised Land"
    b. America's Immigration Laws
    c. Equal Rights for All People
    d. Social, Economic, and Political Equality for the Negro

11. Interest in minority groups may be aroused by using a magazine article, a new book, a radio broadcast, or a current motion picture. *Crossfire,* an excellent commercial film against bigotry and hatred, is an example of current material which should be used to stimulate thinking and action.

12. *Study of stereotypes*
    a. Make a study of stereotypes such as:
        1) Hunkies or Bohunks
        2) Poles or Polaks
        3) Sheenies or Kikes
        4) Dagoes or Wops
    b. With use of Balopticon, show pictures of different races and nationalities and have students try to identify them. A group of pictures of persons of various nationalities called "Can You Name Them?" is published by the American Committee for Democracy and Intellectual Freedom, 519 W. 121st Street, New York (10 cents). This will reveal to students their inability to identify national groups by appearance and the fallacy of stereotypes.

13. Have students bring in stories of folkways and stories which are peculiar to the various groups.

14. *Transcriptions.*[1] Use one or more of the series:
    a. Americans All—Immigrants All
    b. Freedom's People Series (8 programs dramatizing the Negroes' contribution)

15. *Motion pictures*[1]
    a. American Anniversary
    b. As Our Boyhood Is

[1] See Section VII, "Suggested Materials," for description of recordings, films, etc.

c. Border Town
d. China, Our Neighbor
e. Early Settlers in New England
f. The Flag Speaks
g. Henry Browne, Farmer
h. Indian Life Today
i. Life in Old Louisiana
j. Negro Farmer
k. The Negro Soldier
l. Peoples of Canada
m. Proudest Americans
n. Sharecroppers
o. Sons of Liberty
p. Story of Dr. Carver
q. Towards Unity

16. *Literary experiences*

Integrate literary experiences with the study of racial and minority groups, by having the class read:

McClellan, M. B. *Within Our Gates*

Rölvaag, O. E. *Giants in the Earth*

17. *Dramatization*

a. *Races in a Democracy*, a thirty-minute radio script which can be purchased for 15 cents from the American Committee for Democracy and Intellectual Freedom, 519 W. 121st Street, New York City. Students may enjoy working up this skit.

b. Have the students use the "Living Newspaper" or "March of Time" technique and write their own skits. Incidents showing intercultural relations which lend themselves to this technique and which can be dramatized in a radio skit are
   1) Zoot-suit riots in Los Angeles
   2) Detroit race riots
   3) Naturalization ceremony
   4) Acts of persecution in a small community
   5) Techniques used by bigots to stir up group antagonism
   6) San José Incident

c. *Meet Your Relatives*, a lively dramatization of the ABC's of anthropology in the form of an illustrated lecture in musical fashion, can be purchased for 5 cents a copy from Public Affairs Committee, Inc., Room 6333, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York. The skit is adapted from *The Races of Mankind* and has original lyrics to the tune of "Pistol Packin' Mama."

C. *Culminating Activities*
1. Have each student write a paper "What Americanism Means to Me" — the result of his own thinking on intercultural relations.
2. Repeat an attitude test on beliefs or give a similar form to measure the effect of the unit on students' attitudes. Tests which might be used are:
   a. Beliefs on Intercultural Relations (See Evaluation)
   b. Thurstone's tests on the Negro, Chinese, etc.
3. Arrange for a radio or assembly program emphasizing the necessity of coöperation between racial groups in America.
4. A pageant might be developed by the class which would show the people who make up America. This could be given before civics groups or other classes, or before the school assembly.
5. The class might prefer to write and present a documentary play or "Living Newspaper" on the subject "The People of Long Beach," or "What It Means to Be a Member of a Minority Group in Los Angeles County." (See Brown, *They See for Themselves*, New York: Harper & Bros., 1945, for the technique of documentary plays.)

VI. Evaluation

A. Student-constructed chart of his own attitude and belief changes
B. Teacher-constructed tests for knowledge and understanding
C. Tests for appraising changes in attitudes
   1. Thurstone-edited Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes Toward:
      a. The Negro[1]
      b. The Chinese[1]
      c. The Germans[1]
   2. Remmers-edited Scale for Measuring Attitude Toward Races and Nationalities[1]
   3. Beliefs on Intercultural Relations
D. Tests for evaluating ability to think critically
   1. Application of Principles
      a. Negro Student — #VI Social Problems 1.41. Progressive Education Association Test.
      b. Employment of Negroes — #VI Social Problems 1.42. Progressive Education Association Test.
      c. Chinese Student
   2. Interpretation of Data — Growth of Population
E. Sample tests

[1] For sample copies or sets consult the Educational Research Department.

BELIEFS ON INTERCULTURAL RELATIONS,[1] Form A

Directions: People differ a great deal in their attitudes toward people of other races and beliefs. Here are a number of statements. Read each statement and then write on your answer sheet after the number of the statement:

> A—if you agree with the statement
> U—if you are uncertain about your attitude
> D—if you disagree with the statement

1. Given an equal chance, the Negroes can be as successful as the white people.
2. Negroes should be allowed to go anywhere white people go.
3. Even though the Negroes may outnumber the whites in certain localities, there should be no interference with the Negro's right to vote.
4. Most Negroes cannot profit from more than an elementary school education.
5. Under favorable conditions the morality of the average Negro can be equal to that of the average white man.
6. Catholics, Protestants, Jews, Buddhists, Mohammedans may be equally patriotic.
7. If it is contrary to the religious beliefs of the parents, students should not be compelled to take part in the health program of the school.
8. If the religious beliefs of parents are opposed to it, students should not be required to salute the flag in school patriotic exercises.
9. Because their beliefs are so different, Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish leaders should not be expected to work together on community projects.
10. We should never elect anyone but a Protestant to be President.
11. Jews should be barred from apartment houses, hotels, and restricted residential areas.
12. Jews should be prohibited by law from holding the most important positions in medicine, science, and politics before they monopolize them.
13. Jews are more greedy for honor, money, and prestige than other people.
14. Ostracism by other people has forced the Jew to find associates among his own people.
15. Jews have more business ability than most people.
16. Italians should not be allowed to come to America because they are quick-tempered people, given to crimes of violence.

[1] Most items on Negroes taken from Progressive Education Scale of Beliefs 4.21-4.31.

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17. Most foreigners are radical and try to undermine our form of government.
18. Mexican laborers should be prohibited from entering the United States since they lower American standards of living.
19. Organizations like Sons of Italy and German-American Bund show that all hyphenated Americans are more loyal to their native country than to the United States.
20. Young people of Mexican and other Latin-American extraction are as capable of intellectual achievement as are students of Anglo-Saxon parentage.
21. The same wages should be paid to Orientals as to whites for work which requires the same ability and training.
22. The idea that the white race is superior to the Oriental is untrue.
23. Orientals should not be allowed to fill positions involving leadership of whites.
24. The Japanese-language schools maintained for the purpose of teaching Japanese language, religion, and customs should not be permitted in the United States.
25. The Japanese should not be permitted to live on the West Coast.
26. It is undemocratic to have schools which separate races, religious groups, or economic groups.
27. Negroes are more inclined to be criminals than are whites.
28. All races should associate on an equal social basis.
29. The contribution of the Negro race to our civilization is almost negligible.
30. It is right and natural that in hiring people a white person should be preferred to a colored one even if the two are of equal ability.
31. Different religious groups in America should be compelled to accept the religion of the majority.
32. If one does not approve the religious beliefs of another, he should avoid all association with him.
33. We should not permit any religion to become too important because its followers may take over the government.
34. The religious beliefs of an applicant should be taken into consideration in selecting teachers.
35. Religious leaders should not be permitted to inflict their political views on their congregation.
36. Honesty and fair play are as prevalent in one race as in another.
37. Most Jews have more musical and artistic talent than gentiles.
38. Jewish refugees should not be allowed to enter the United States.
39. The United States could not afford to bar Jews from public office, for many of our greatest citizens have been Jews.

40. Jewish children should be allowed to miss school on Jewish holidays and should be permitted to make up their work.
41. People of foreign origin should be permitted to print papers in their native language since many of the older ones cannot read English and would otherwise go uninformed.
42. All Italians are emotional and easily excited to mob violence.
43. Mexicans are fit only for agricultural laborers and workers on the railroad.
44. Mexicans who have been brought into the United States should be helped to improve their standard of living.
45. The American of foreign origin should be allowed to continue use of his native spoken and written language in the United States.
46. The Japanese should be prohibited from entering the United States.
47. Nisei or Japanese-Americans should have the same privileges and protection given all American citizens.
48. The government should help restore Japanese property in California which has deteriorated due to the Japanese evacuation act or should compensate the Japanese for any loss they suffered.
49. Persons of Japanese ancestry can never make loyal American citizens, for their loyalties are always to the Japanese Empire.
50. No one race is more dishonest than any other.

Beliefs in Intercultural Relations, Form B

1. Negroes as a race are inferior and we can never hope for them to do as well as white people.
2. Negroes should not be allowed to go to the same hotels, restaurants, and theaters as whites.
3. In places where Negroes outnumber whites, there should be restrictions which limit the Negro vote.
4. Given the same opportunities, the average Negro can get as much from an education as the average white man.
5. The moral standards of the Negro can never be as high as those of the white race.
6. Religious groups whose center of interest is in Rome, Jerusalem, Mecca, or the Far East could not be as loyal to the United States as those who have no religious allegiance outside our own country.
7. School authorities should compel all students to take part in the athletic and health programs of the school.
8. No American child should be permitted to refrain from saluting the flag regardless of his or his parents' religious beliefs.

9. Since all important religious groups in the United States favor social, economic, and political improvement, it should not be difficult for their leaders to coöperate for the improvement of the public welfare.
10. It should not matter what the President's religious belief is, if he is otherwise the best man for the presidency.
11. No one should be barred from living where he pleases because of his race, color, or cultural group.
12. Any person who has ability should be allowed to develop and use it to the fullest extent in the service of society, regardless of the race or culture group to which he belongs.
13. The desire for honors, prestige, and wealth is not peculiar to any one race or national group.
14. Jews can never be assimilated in American culture.
15. Jews have earned their places in the professional and business world by hard work and perseverance.
16. Italians should be encouraged to come to the United States because their artistic nature has added much to our culture.
17. Most immigrants have contributed and will contribute much to the welfare of our nation.
18. The same wage should be paid Mexicans as is paid other workers for work which requires the same ability and training.
19. Most immigrants who come to America become loyal Americans.
20. Mexicans are incapable of intellectual achievement even though they are given educational opportunities.
21. Orientals should not be paid as much as whites even though they do the same work.
22. People of the white race are in most respects superior to people of all other races.
23. All positions in the political and economic world should be open to any man with the ability to fill them, regardless of race.
24. In addition to public schools where their children learn American customs and traditions as well as the English language, all ethnic groups should be permitted to have language schools in which the language, customs, and beliefs of the parents can be taught.
25. No community has the right to exclude a citizen because of race or color.
26. Negroes should be sent to separate schools from those attended by white children.
27. Given the same economic, social, and educational opportunities, the proportion of criminals among the Negroes will be no higher than among the whites.

28. Association of whites with Negroes on an equal social basis is undesirable.
29. Many fine contributions in art and music have been the work of Negroes.
30. In hiring people for any kind of work, employers should not give preference to whites over Negroes of equal ability.
31. Every person has the right to his own religious beliefs unless they endanger the welfare of others.
32. Even though a person is opposed to the religious beliefs of another, he should be able to get along with him.
33. People should not allow their religion to determine their choice of candidates for office.
34. The religious beliefs of a teacher should not be a factor in selecting him.
35. It is one of the responsibilities as well as privileges of a clergyman to influence the political policies of his congregation.
36. Jews are more underhanded in business than other people. ⸗
37. No one race is more talented than another.
38. The United States should welcome Jewish refugees, not only because it is a social and moral obligation, but also because of the benefit it will bring to the nation as a whole.
39. Jews should be barred from holding public office, for they are trying to control the government and financial institutions.
40. It is contrary to democratic principles to give students special privileges because of religious beliefs.
41. Italian-Americans should not be permitted to print their newspaper in their native language.
42. The criminal tendency is no higher in one race or nationality than another.
43. The craft, musical, and artistic ability of Mexicans has added much to our culture.
44. Mexicans are incapable of intellectual achievement even though they are given educational opportunities.
45. All people living in the United States should be compelled to talk and read the English language.
46. Our immigration laws should not discriminate against any race or national group.
47. Japanese-Americans cannot be trusted and therefore should not have the rights of American citizens even though they are born in this country.
48. The government has no responsibility for private property destroyed or damaged by government action.

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49. Many Japanese-Americans proved their American patriotism during the war.

50. Persons of Japanese ancestry cannot be trusted in business dealings.

Test on Critical Thinking[1]

The Chinese Student

A Chinese girl, student in a large high school, was invited by a white girl friend to accompany her to a popular skating rink in the city. The Chinese girl, embarrassed, was forced to decline the invitation since this place of amusement did not permit Orientals to enter.

What do you think owners of amusement resorts should do about admitting Chinese?

Directions: Choose the course (or courses) of action which you think best and write it on your answer sheet.

Courses of Action:

A. Chinese should be admitted on the same conditions as others.

B. Chinese should be excluded from such places.

C. Chinese should be admitted, but they should be required to occupy a place apart from the others, or attend on special Chinese days or hours.

Directions: Choose the reasons which you would use for your course (or courses) of action. If you have chosen more than one course of action, and a reason supports both, mark it as supporting both.

Reasons:

1. A proprietor has the right to exclude anyone he pleases from his property.

2. Practicing race discrimination endangers our democracy.

3. Chinese prefer wrestling and fencing to skating or dancing.

4. Chinese have played successfully alongside members of other races on our high-school football teams.

5. Chinese excel in sports, and Americans do not like to be outdone by another race.

6. Humiliating a proud race of people will cause its members to be less loyal to the United States.

7. If any group of people do not like the way they are treated here, they should return to their own country.

8. Chinese are uniformly well-behaved and non-offensive in public places.

9. Chinese culture and manners are very inferior to American manners and customs.

10. Our theory of democracy requires that we treat all races with consideration, but they must be taught to keep their place.

[1] Adapted from a test developed by Noah Davenport, Seattle, at Stanford Social Education Workshop, 1941.

11. Chinese are so refined in dress and manners that their presence in public places sets a needed example for other Americans.
12. Americans will not attend places where they will be thrown in contact with the Chinese.
13. Insulting restrictions upon any race of people show a spirit of narrow-minded intolerance on the part of the nation which permits their practice.
14. Americans, above all people, should seek to allow all races to live in full equality if we wish to become a unified and strong nation.
15. It is not that we think that we are better than the Chinese; it is rather that they are so different from us that we cannot get along together in close association.
16. Disorder and violence are likely to result when different races intermingle socially.
17. Individual differences are of real importance, but race differences are so slight that no race as a group should be condemned or lauded.
18. It would be embarrassing to a girl to attend places where she might be asked to skate or dance by a boy of another race.
19. Chinese would be satisfied if they could have the rink to themselves at special times.
20. Setting aside special hours or special sections for the Chinese would provide them with equal recreational opportunities.
21. The Chinese should patronize their own places of amusement.
22. Segregation of races is the easiest way to solve the race problem.
23. In a democracy recreation facilities should not be closed to anyone because of his race.

(The following statements refer to the diagram on the facing page. These statements are continued at the top of page 532.)

1. Our white population has increased much more rapidly than our Negro population.
2. Our Negro population is decreasing.
3. Our native population is increasing faster than our foreign-born.
4. Our foreign-born population would increase faster if we didn't have such strict immigration laws.
5. Few immigrants came to the United States before 1860 because slavery in the United States made it difficult for them to find work.
6. There were fewer foreign-born in the United States in 1937 than in 1910.
7. If the standard of living of Negroes were improved, Negro population figures would increase more rapidly.
8. There were over 7 times as many white people as Negroes in the United States in 1937.

Interpretation of Data Test

Growth of Population[1]
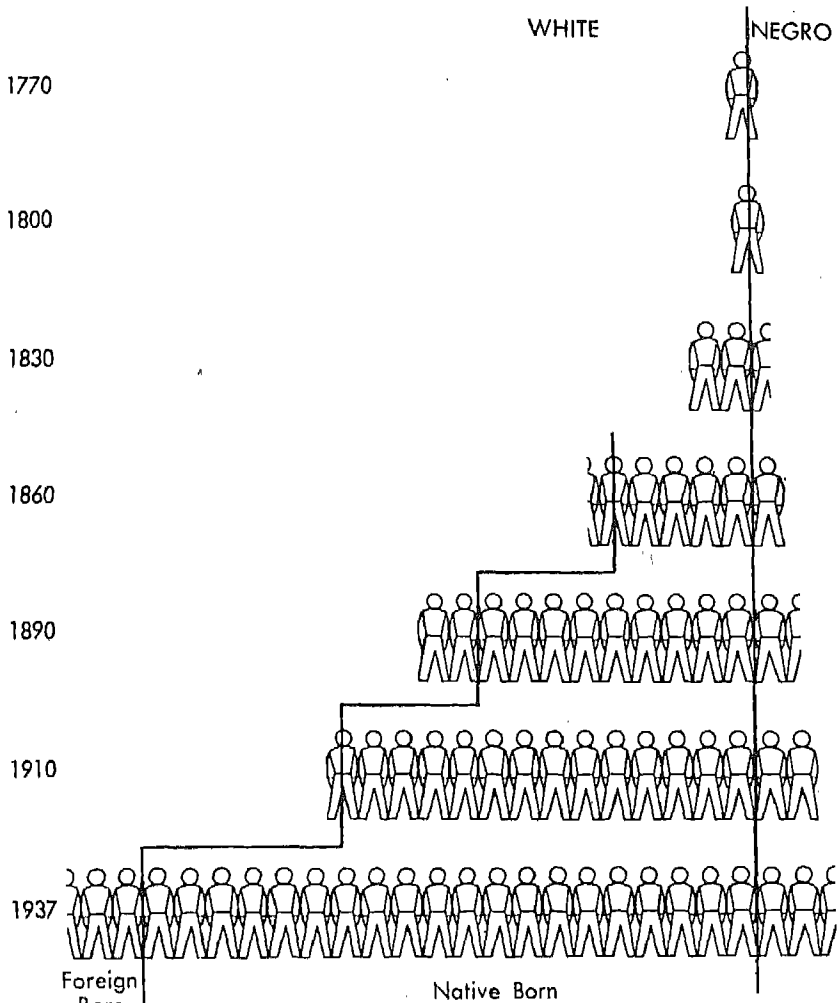
Each symbol represents 5 million persons

Directions: Read each statement [see statements at the bottom of p. 530 and top of p. 532] and then on the basis of the data given in the graph write on your answer sheet:

        T—if the statement is true
        F—if the statement is false
      ID—if the data are insufficient to decide whether the
           statement is true or false

[1] Developed by Mildred Williams, Stanford Education Workshop, 1941

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9. There were more foreign-born whites than Negroes in the United States in 1937.
10. Our total population increased more between 1930 and 1937 than between 1920 and 1930.
11. No Negroes were brought to America between 1770 and 1800.
12. The birth rate among the Negroes is *lower* than among the whites.
13. There were no foreign-born in the United States before 1860.
14. The Negroes-to-whites ratio has been about the same since 1860.
15. The growth of population in the United States has been due more to a high birth rate than to immigration.

KEY

1 T	6 F	11 ID
2 F	7 ID	12 ID
3 T	8 T	13 ID
4 ID	9 F	14 F
5 ID	10 ID	15 T

VII. Suggested Materials

A. TEXTBOOKS

Adams, J. T. *Record of America.* 1938
Barker, E. C., and others. *Our Nation's Development.* 1934
Barnard, J. L. *Epochs of World Progress*, I, II. 1933
Beard, C. A. *History of the United States.* 1941
Faulkner, H. U. *America: Its History and People.* 1938 and 1943
Fish, C. R. *History of the United States.* 1934
Hamm, W. A. *Unit History of the United States.* 1935
Harlow, R. V. *Story of America.* 1937
Huberman, Leo. *We, the People.* 1932
McClellan, M. B. *Within Our Gates.* 1940
Muzzey, D. S. *History of Our Country.* 1936, 1942
Rugg, H. O. *A History of American Civilization.* 1930
Walker, E. E. *American Democracy and Social Change.* 1936
West, W. M. *American People.* 1928
Wirth, F. P. *Development of America.* 1936

B. SUPPLEMENTARY READING (Starred items are for teachers' use only)

1. *Non-Fiction*

Adamic, Louis. *From Many Lands.* 1940
Addams, Jane. *Twenty Years at Hull House.* 1910
Allard, Alexander. *American Counterpoint.* 1943
"A text - and - picture 'family album' of Americans."—*New Yorker.*
Antin, Mary. *The Promised Land.* 1917
Antin, Mary. *They Who Knock at Our Gates.* 1914

Beard, A. E. S. *Our Foreign Born Citizens.* 1932

Beard, C. A. *The Rise of American Civilization.* 1939

Benedict, R. F. *Race: Science and Politics.* 1940

Blankenship, Russell. *American Literature as an Expression of the National Mind.* 1937

Bok, E. W. *The Americanization of Edward Bok.* 1902

Bowen, C. D. *Yankee from Olympus.* 1944
  Study of the Holmes family through three generations

Browley, B. G. *Short History of the American Negro.* 1931

Brown, F. J., and Roucek, Joseph. *Our Racial and National Minorities.* 1937

Brown, F. S., and Roucek, Joseph, *One America: The History, Contribution, and Present Problems of Our Racial and National Minorities.* 1945

*Brown, Spencer. *They See for Themselves.* 1945

Browne, Lewis. *Stranger Than Fiction.* 1925

Caldwell, Erskine, and Bourke-White, Margaret. *You Have Seen Their Faces.* 1937

Caraman, Elizabeth. *Daughter of the Euphrates.* 1939

Chase, Stuart. *Mexico.* 1931

Corsi, Edward. *In the Shadow of Liberty.* 1935

Davis-DuBois, Rachel. *Jews in American Life.* 1935

*Dewey, John. *Freedom and Culture.* 1939

DuBois, W. E. B. *Black Folk Then and Now.* 1939

DuBois, W. E. B. *The Negro.* 1915

DuBois, W. E. B. *Souls of Black Folk.* 1931

Embree, E. R. *Brown America.* 1933

Embree, E. R. *Brown Americans.* 1943
  Story of Negro race

Embree, E. R. *13 Against the Odds.* 1944
  Stories of thirteen outstanding Negroes

Federal Writers Project. *These Are Our Lives.* 1939

Frazier, E. Franklin. *Negro Youth at the Crossways.* 1940

Goslin, R. A., Goslin, O. P., and Storen, H. F. *American Democracy Today and Tomorrow.* 1942

Hansen, M. L., *The Immigrant in American History.* 1940

Hawthorne, Hildegarde, *Romantic Cities of California.* 1939

Helm, Mackinley, *Angel Mo' and Her Son, Roland Hayes.* 1942
  Biography of a notable American Negro singer

Hurston, Zona, *Dust Tracks on a Road.* 1942
  Autobiography of a successful Negro woman

Husband, Joseph, *Americans by Adoption.* 1920

Huxley, J. S., and Haddon, A. C. *We Europeans.* 1936

Jensen, C. C., *An American Saga.* 1927

Johnson, C. S., *Growing Up in the Black Belt.* 1941

Jordan, E. L., *Americans.* 1939

Klineberg, Otto, *Race Differences.* 1935

Klineberg, Otto, *Characteristics of American Negro.* 1944

Locke, A. L., and Stern, Bernhard J., *When Peoples Meet, A Study in Race Culture Contact.* 1942

Lynd, R. S., and Lynd, H. M., *Middletown.* 1929

McKenzie, R. D., *Oriental Exclusion.* n. d.

MacLeish, Archibald, *Land of the Free.* 1938

McWilliams, Carey, *Brothers Under the Skin.* 1943

McWilliams, Carey, *Ill Fares the Land.* 1942

*Mitchell, Lucy S., and others, *The People of the United States: Their Place in the School Curriculum.* 1942

*Myrdal, Gunnar, *An American Dilemma.* 1944 (2 vols.)
  A comprehensive study of the Negro problem in the United States

*National Education Association, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. *Fourteenth Yearbook: Americans All.* 1942

Odum, Howard W., *Race and Rumors of Race.* 1943
  Story of racial tensions in the United States during World War II

Ottley, Roy, *New World A-Coming.* 1943
  Intimately detailed story of Negro life

Peterkin, Julia, *Roll, Jordan, Roll.* 1933

Powdermaker, Hortense, *Probing Our Prejudices.* 1944

Reid, I. D., *In a Minor Key.* 1940

Riis, J. A., *The Making of an American.* 1901

Rizk, Salom, *Syrian Yankee.* 1943
  A personal record of Americanization

Rugg, H. O., *Our Country and Our People.* 1938

Seabrook, W. B., *These Foreigners.* 1938

Sears, P. B., *Who Are These Americans?* 1939

Stegner, Wallace, *One Nation.* 1945

Stephenson, G. M., *History of American Civilization, 1820-1924.* 1926

Sutherland, R. L., *Color, Class, and Personality.* 1942

*Taba, Hilda, and Van Til, William (eds.), *Democratic Human Relations, Sixteenth Yearbook of the National Council of the Social Studies.* 1945

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*Vickery, William E., and Cole, Stewart G., *Intercultural Education in American Schools.* 1943

Wilson, H. E., and others, *This America.* 1942

Wissler, Clark, *Indians in the United States.* 1940

Wittke, C. F., *We Who Built America.* 1940

Wright, Richard, and Rosskam, Edwin, *12 Million Black Voices.* 1941

    A folk history of the Negro in the United States, well illustrated and realistic

Zangwill, Israel, *The Melting Pot.* 1914

2. *Fiction*

Adamic, Louis, *Grandsons*

    Slovenian immigrants in America

Aldrich, B. S. *Spring Came on Forever*

    First- and fourth-generation homesteaders in Nebraska

Binns, Archie, *The Land Is Bright*

    Historical novel of the migration to Oregon in early 1850's

Bojer, Johan, *The Emigrants*

    Norwegian pioneers in Red River Valley, North Dakota

Brigham Johnson, *The Sinclairs of Old Fort Des Moines*

    Adventures of a family living in a frontier fort

Cannon, C. J., *Red Rust*

    Wheat farming in Minnesota

Carroll, G. H., *As the Earth Turns*

    Story of a Maine farmer of the present day

Carmer, C. L., *America Sings*

    Combination of tall tales of American heroes and folk or work songs

Cather, W. S., *My Ántonia*

    Immigrant pioneer life in Nebraska

Cather, W. S., *O Pioneers*

    Pioneer life in Nebraska

Cather, W. S., *The Song of the Lark*

    Development of a great singer

Damon, Bertha, *Grandma Called It Carnal*

    Life in a Connecticut village

Davis, H. L., *Honey in the Horn*

    Homesteading in Oregon

Eggleston, Edward, *The Graysons*

    A story of Abraham Lincoln

Fitch, Florence, *One God*

Forbes, Esther, *Johnny Tremain*
  Boston in Revolutionary days
Forbes, Katherine, *Mama's Bank Account*
  A Norwegian-American family in California
Gale, Zona, *Magna*
  Romance in a small midwestern town
Glick, Carl, *Three Times I Bow*
  Informal sketches of Chinese-Americans in New York
Heyward, Dubose, *Porgy*
  Story of an American Negro
Jackson, H. H., *Ramona*
  Life in old California
Kelly, Myra, *Little Aliens*
  Short stories about Jewish children and their parents
LaFarge, Oliver, *Enemy Gods*
  Story of a Navajo Indian boy
Lundeberg, O. K., *The Song of Aino*
  Finnish-American girl in Minnesota
Matson, Norman, *Day of Fortune*
  Norwegians in America
Miers, Earl S., *Big Ben*
  Based on life of Paul Robeson
Means, F. C., *Shuttered Windows*
  Life.among the Negroes
Moon, Bucklin, *The Darker Brother*
  Story of Negro lives in the North, especially the experiences
  of the boy Ben, from his twelfth year until he enters the Army
  just.before Pearl Harbor
Ostenso, Martha, *Wild Geese*
  Story of pioneer life in Minnesota
Poole, Ernest, *One of Us*
  New Hampshire village life
Rawlings, M. K., *When the Whippoorwill*
  Collection of stories and a novelette about the Florida Crackers
Redding, J. S., *No Day of Triumph*
  Personalized portrait of a young Negro
Roberts, E. M., *The Great Meadow*
  Pioneer life in Kentucky
Rölvaag, O. E., *Giants in the Earth*
  Norwegian immigrants in the Dakotas
Schultz, J. W., *Short Bow's Big Medicine*
  Indian story of 1870

Skidmore, Hubert, *Hill Lawyer* (Sequel to *River Rising*)
   A young doctor returns to his own mountain country
Saroyan, William, *My Name Is Aram*
   Stories of an Armenian boy and his family in California
Turnbull, Agnes, *Remember the End*
   A success story of a Scotch immigrant boy
Winter, Sophie, *Take All to Nebraska*
   Life of a Danish immigrant family
Wright, Richard, *Native Son*
   Story of a Negro boy's crimes, of what part society played in
   those crimes, and of how the boy paid the penalty
Yezierska, Anzia, *Hungry Hearts*
   Series of sketches regarding Russian immigrants in the Ghetto
   reaching out with hungry hearts for things American

C. MOTION PICTURES

American Anniversary (10 min., sound, National Association of
   Manufacturers)
      This is the picture of the treatment of an immigrant which
   most Americans consider ideal. Use as a contrast to films showing
   abuses and to serve as a point of departure for discussions.
As Our Boyhood Is (18 min., sound, 1943, Educational Film Library
   Association)
      An account of the best in education for Negroes in rural areas
   shows there is much work still to be done.
Black Legion (20 min., sound, Taylor)
      A foreigner and his family are run out of town in order that
   another man can have his job.
Border Town (14 min., sound, Human Relations Series)
      This specially prepared excerpt of the Warner film deals with
   the Mexican immigrant. Disappointed because of the loss of
   his first law case, the young immigrant blames the judge and
   turns to money-getting as the means of gaining respect and power.
China, Our Neighbor (Reel I, *China and America*, 1932, Harmon)
      The physical, cultural, and industrial aspects of China and
   the United States are compared.
Early Settlers in New England (11 min., sound, 1940, Encyclopaedia
   Britannica films)
      Types of people and the background of American democracy
   are shown.
The Flag Speaks (19 min., sound, color, MGM)
      This history of the flag tells of abuses of the freedoms it
   represents that have occurred during its life.

Japanese Relocation (11 min., sound, OWI)

    A film telling of resettlement.

Henry Browne, Farmer (10 min., 1942, U. S. Department of Agriculture)

    The simple industry and foresight of a Negro farm family are shown.

Indian Life Today (15 min., silent, color, Our Colorful World Series)

    Life among the Zuñis is pictured in true-to-life style.

Life in Old Louisiana (10 min., sound, 1942, Erpi)

    Portrays life in a French settlement in America in 1830.

Negro Farmer (30 min., 1938, sound, U. S. Department of Agriculture)

    Shows what the Federal and State Agricultural Extension Service is doing for Negroes.

The Negro Soldier (45 min., sound, OWI)

    The Negro is treated with respect in this film. The question of discrimination is not brought up but the Negroes are said to be very much pleased with the result.

Peoples of Canada (30 min., sound, 1940, Canadian Government)

    This attractive picture tells of a history of immigration almost parallel to that of the United States. The Indians were followed by northern Europeans and later by Slavs and southern Europeans. The French Canadian was there and the Negro was absent, but in almost all other ways the settlement of the two countries was alike.

Proudest Americans (10 min., sound, 1937, International Cinema Service)

    Presents a picture of life among the modern Seminole Indians.

Refugee of Today and Tomorrow (20 min., sound, 1938, March of Time)

    The film deals primarily with refugee problems arising from the persecution of Jews in Germany.

Sharecroppers (5 min., sound, 1936, March of Time)

    Unjust treatment of the sharecroppers is laid at the door of the one-crop system.

Sons of Liberty (18 min., sound, Warner Historical Series)

    It tells of the contribution of the Jews to the struggle for independence during the Revolutionary War.

Story of Dr. Carver (11 min., sound, Pete Smith Specialties)

    A Negro slave boy received an education and became a great scientist.

Towards Unity (11 min., sound, 1935, Pathé)

This film is a definite plea against racial and national prejudice and for peace.

When Work Is Done (10 min., OWI, 1943, sound)

What one town did to make its war workers feel at home.

World We Want to Live In (10 min., sound, 1941, National Conference of Christians and Jews)

A Roman Catholic, a Protestant, and a Jewish child play together in America although in parts of Europe such mingling would be impossible. Nevertheless, racial and religious intolerance must always be fought in America.

D. RADIO SCRIPTS

I Am an American

Prominent Americans of foreign birth tell why they are proud to be naturalized American citizens. Many of these scripts are available in the Audio-Visual Department.

E. STUDY PRINTS

And the Migrants Kept Coming (Pamphlet folder, colored pictures from *Fortune*)

Negro artist paints the story of his race.

Civil Liberties (Building America, May, 1939)

Democracy in the United States Schools (Pamphlet folder)

High-school students and their understanding of democracy.

Jewish People (5 plates, clippings from *Fortune*)

Negro Americans Today (38 plates)

Pictures of Negroes showing their progress during freedom.

Negroes (Pamphlet folder)

The United States has a minority problem.

F. TRANSCRIPTIONS

Americans All—Immigrants All (16" discs, 2 sides, 33⅓ r.p.m., study guide) Our English heritage; Our Hispanic heritage; Scotch, Scotch-Irish, and Welsh; The Negro in the United States; French-speaking peoples; Germans in the United States; Scandinavians in the United States; Slavs in the United States, Program 2; Jews in the United States; Orientals in the United States; Italians in the United States; Contributions in social progress; Contributions in industry; Contributions in science; The arts and crafts; An industrial city; Grand finale.

These Are Americans

Six episodes presented by Radio Station KNX during 1943 and 1944. They were planned to help alleviate the strained race relations existing in Los Angeles at the time.

APPENDIX II

A Teaching Unit for Student Use

Originally developed by Mildred Hickok, with some later bibliographical and editorial modifications.

PROBLEM: How can we establish good family relations?

A. *How can we become the kind of persons who contribute to good family morale?*

    1. What are the problems we face *now* in growing up and why are they important to family welfare?

        a. Problems in attaining physical maturity

        b. Problems of personality development

        c. Problems of establishing our independence

        d. Problems of learning to feel at ease in mixed company

        References:

        Allen and Briggs, *Behave Yourself*

        Bennett and Hand, *Beyond High School*

        Bogardus and Lewis, *Social Life and Personality*

        Burnham, Jones and Redford, *Boys Will Be Men*

        Geisel, John, *Personal Problems and Morale*

        Groves, Skinner and Swenson, *The Family and Its Relationships,* Unit 1

        Jordan, Ziller and Brown, *Home and Family*

        Ruch and MacKenzie, *People Are Important*

        Uhl and Powers, *Personal and Social Adjustment*

        Woodward, Elizabeth, *Personality Preferred* (For Girls)

        Assignment #1 (Do *all three* of these.)[1]

        1. After studying yourself for several days, make an inventory of your good and bad habits. List these in opposite columns. Draw up a plan of action for overcoming your difficulties.

        2. Write a paper telling the kind of person you would like to be ten years from now. Include a description of your desired personality, appearance, educational achievement, and vocational progress. What would you like to be doing then?

        3. Enlist the help of your family and closest friends in making an objective study of your own personal appearance. In parallel columns list your good points and your poor points. After careful consideration of this inventory, work out a plan for self-improvement. Include positive steps which you can take this semester. Write out and hand in.

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[1] Many of the assignments in this unit were adapted from similar activities proposed in Groves, E. R., Skinner, E. L. and Swenson, S. J., *The Family and Its Relationships,* Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1941. This book was used as a basic text for the unit.

2. How can we get along better with other members of our family?
   a. Parents
   b. Siblings
   c. Others living in the home
   References:
   Dennis, Lemo, *Living Together in the Family*
   Thurrow and Dennis, *Pictures of Family Life*
   Assignment #2 Write a short essay on any one of the following topics, showing clearly how young people develop conflicting attitudes under varying conditions.

   (1) Corporal punishment
   (2) Religious differences
   (3) School problems
   (4) Quarrels with brothers and sisters
   (5) Grandparents in the home
   (6) Favoritism of parent for a particular child
   (7) Outside boarders and roomers in the home
   (8) Economic conditions
   (9) Personal habits likely to prove annoying to other members of the family

   Base your comments on personal experience, observation of other families, class discussions, and readings.
   Panel Discussion of the influences which affect family relations such as fatigue, worry, insecurity, unhappiness, differing standards of husband and wife and of parents and children, dominance, expressive self-sacrifice, jealousy.
3. How do our relationships with others outside the family affect present and future home life?
   a. Boy-girl relationships
   b. Relationships with others of our own sex
   c. Relationships with older people
   References:
   Bennett and Hand, *Designs for Personality*
   Bogardus and Lewis, *Social Life and Personality*
   McLean, Donald, *Knowing Yourself and Others*
   Ruch and MacKenzie, *People Are Important*
   Uhl and Powers, *Personal and Social Adjustment*
   Assignment #3 (Do number 3 and choose one other.)
   1. What are some of the most desirable circumstances for meeting young people of the opposite sex? Make a list of these and indicate whether or not you have made friends through these channels.

2. Describe a friendship you have with an older person. Mention the things you enjoy talking about and the activities you like to share with this person.
3. If a boy, make a list of (a) the things boys like in girls, (b) dislike in girls, or, if a girl, list (a) the things you like in boys, (b) things you dislike which boys do.
4. Write a character sketch of a close friend of your own sex. Tell how you got to know this friend and why you value your friendship.

B. *What makes for a happy courtship and marriage?*
1. What are the problems faced in courtship?
   a. Knowing the rules
   b. Meeting and getting to know people
   c. Having a good time
      (1) Money
      (2) Popularity
      (3) Social poise

References:
Bogardus and Lewis, *Social Life and Personality*
Geisel, John, *Personal Problems and Morale*
Groves, Skinner and Swenson, *The Family and Its Relationships,* Unit 9
Johnson, Randolph, and Pixley, *Looking Toward Marriage*
Jordan, Ziller and Brown, *Home and Family*

Assignment #4 (Choose one of the following.)
1. Can parents help their sons and daughters to develop friendships among boys and girls? How? If they don't help, what can high-school students do about it? Write your opinions on this question.
2. Make a list of at least fifteen activities that young people can enjoy together that do not cost money.
3. Make a list of at least ten advantages of having many friends among both boys and girls.

2. Whom should one marry? What are the important factors to consider in choosing a wife or husband?
   a. Health
   b. Heredity
   c. Education
   d. Cultural interests
   e. Socio-economic status
   f. Religion
   g. Racial and national backgrounds

References:

Hilton, Eugene, *Problems and Values of Today,* Unit IX

Assignment #5 (Choose one of the following.)

1. Write a paper setting forth your ideal of the person you would like to have as your life partner. Describe his or her personality, temperament, appearance, character, etc. Would you like this person to have certain talents and interests? How important is a capacity for growth? Compare this person with yourself.

2. Write a character sketch of a young couple you know who are well suited to each other or who have to face adjustment difficulties.

Panel Discussion of the various important factors to consider in choosing a wife or husband (see above list).

3. When should one marry?
   a. Age and experience
   b. Financial position
   c. War marriage
   d. Problems of long engagements

References:

Jordan, Ziller and Brown, *Home and Family*

Assignment #6 (Do one of the following.)

1. Write a report of some recent magazine article you have read on war marriages.

2. List your own opinions on war marriages.

3. Write a paper comparing modern preparation for marriage with the earlier "dowry and hope chest" tradition. What is important in pre-marital training and planning today? Talk with your older relatives about their "start in life" and report your findings.

4. As a social institution, what are some of the problems marriage presents?
   a. Legal aspects of marriage
      (1) Age limits, time restrictions, and health standards
      (2) Marriage licenses and performance of ceremony
      (3) Domestic law
   b. Divorce and separation
   c. Lack of uniformity in state laws

References:

Groves, Skinner and Swenson, *The Family and Its Relationships,* Unit 10

Hilton, Eugene, *Problems and Values of Today*

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Assignment #7 (Choose one of the following.)

1. Write out arguments for or against the desirability of a law requiring a few days' notice before marriage and a law requiring health examinations.

2. Write a paper on divorce in California. Include information on grounds for divorce; number of divorces; differences between divorce, desertion, and annulment; alimony; custody of children; etc.

3. Write to government agencies in Oregon, Nevada, and Arizona for information about marriage and divorce laws in these states. Compare and contrast these with the laws of California. Discuss their relative merits.

Panel Discussion on domestic law to cover questions relating to children, property, and inheritance found on pages 253-254 of *The Family and Its Relationships,* Groves, Skinner and Swenson.

C. *What is involved in making a home?*

1. How has family life changed through the ages?

a. History of family life in other countries

b. History of family life in the United States

References:

Bogardus and Lewis, *Social Life and Personality*

Goodsell, Willystine, *A History of Marriage and the Family*

Groves, Ernest, *The American Family*

Groves, Skinner and Swenson, *The Family and Its Relationships,* Units 2, 3, and 4

Jordan, Ziller and Brown, *Home and Family*

Assignment #8 (Choose one of the following.)

1. Write a descriptive analysis of the family life of one of the following:

    (1) The ancient Greeks and Romans

    (2) The Jews

    (3) The Chinese

    (4) The colonial family in America

2. Write a paper discussing the Westward Movement and its effect on family life. How did frontier conditions change the pattern of homemaking?

3. What character traits did men and women have to possess in order to build successful family life on the frontier? Are there conditions today which demand similar qualifications?

2. Where shall the family live?

a. Planning a house

b. The family and the neighborhood
   (1) Family utilization of community recreation facilities
   (2) Importance of educational advantages
   (3) Importance of community health protection
   (4) Family participation in community life
c. Rental vs. home ownership

References:

Groves, Skinner and Swenson, *The Family and Its Relationships*, Units 5 and 6

Public Affairs Pamphlet, No. 66, *Homes to Live In*

Assignment #9: (Do number 1 and choose one other.)

1. Consult homemaking magazines to find house plans suitable to this community. Choose a plan for a small family of average income. Mount the plan attractively. Write a description of the house, covering type of construction, building materials, heating, insulation, lighting, plumbing, etc. What points are especially good in your plan? What income would a family need to rent this house? What income would be required if they wished to build a house like this? Can this house be expanded? Write up this information. An exhibit of all plans will be made.
2. Make a blueprint of some house plans.
3. How do interiors reflect family personality? Discuss furnishings. Find out about modern theories of decoration which combine the useful with the beautiful.
4. Make a survey of housing needs in your community.
5. Write a paper discussing the serious social problems which have been known to result from poor housing.
6. Make a survey of recreational facilities in your community. Include in your report a list of community facilities, commercial recreation establishments, and private-agency-sponsored group work and recreation organizations. What recreation needs are unmet? Compare with recreation facilities in nearby communities, pointing out local achievements.
7. Using newspaper clippings to illustrate that social ideals for your community are not yet fully realized, write a paper on some of these unattained social goals. Find also one or more items showing progress in other areas of community endeavor.
8. From the standpoint of recreational opportunities, would you rather live in the city or country? Support your preference by comparing the relative advantages.

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3. How shall the family work together?
   a. Family government
   b. Status of women in the home
      (1) Careers
      (2) Rôle in family life
   c. Status of men in the home
   d. Sharing the work
   e. Loyalty
   f. Customs and traditions
   g. Affection

References:

Ellenwood, James L., *There's No Place Like Home*

Furnas, Joseph C., *How America Lives*

Spencer, Anna Garlin, *The Family and Its Members*

Groves, Skinner and Swenson, *The Family and Its Relation-ships*, Unit 7 and Unit 12

Jordan, Ziller and Brown, *Home and Family*

Should Married Women Work? Public Affairs Pamphlet, No. 49

Why Women Work, Public Affairs Pamphlet, No. 17

Assignment #10 (Choose any three of the following.)

1. Write a short statement of what loyalty to the family includes. Illustrate with examples of family loyalty which you have observed.
2. Since interests may draw people together or cause them to take divergent paths, it is important to study the interests in the family which affect relationships. In the families that you know best, list the interests that pull them together and those which keep them apart.
3. Etiquette in family relationships is as important as in social relationships. List some of the rules that make for courteous relationships within the family.
4. Pleasant and amicable family relationships are dependent to some extent upon a reasonable amount of regularity in the conduct of daily living. List some of the routines which would promote such desirable home life.
5. Write an essay on the importance of affection in successful family adjustment.
6. List five specific responsibilities for each member of a family with composition similar to your own. The list should illustrate an appropriate division of the work involved in maintaining a family.

4. How does the family handle its finances?
   a. Your personal finances
   b. The family budget
   c. Consumer problems
   d. Life insurance and other forms of economic security
   References:
   Abel, Mary, *Successful Family Life on the Moderate Income*
   Bigelow, Howard, *Family Finance*
   Bogardus and Lewis, *Social Life and Personality*
   Groves, Skinner and Swenson, *The Family and Its Relation-ships,* Unit 8

   Assignment #11 (Choose any two of the following.)
   1. What are the necessities which must be provided by the income of your family?
   2. In a home where family finances are handled on a partnership basis, what privileges and responsibilities would this give to each member of the family? List those of the mother, father, and each child.
   3. Keep an itemized record of your personal expenses for one week. Classify according to such budget headings as recreation, food, clothing, school supplies, etc. Could you have spent more wisely? How? Summarize your expenditures to show what types of goods you spent the most for.
   4. Estimate the cost per year of your high-school education. Get your family to help you itemize and summarize the expense. What responsibility do you have toward your family because you have had the privilege of this education? What responsibility do you have to the community because it has helped to make such an education possible?
   5. Take an inventory of your wearing apparel. Try to list the original cost of each article and total the entire outlay.
   6. Find out how much it would cost a young couple per month to take out an annuity insurance policy which would guarantee them $150 per month for the rest of their life after they reach the age of 55. Is the plan expensive, efficient, wise?
   7. Discuss what social security means to the average American family.
5. How does the family spend its leisure hours?
   a. Avocational interests of members
   b. A family plan for leisure
   c. Benefits of leisure for the family

References:
Bogardus and Lewis, *Social Life and Personality*
Groves, Skinner and Swenson, *The Family and Its Relationships,*
   Unit 13 and Unit 14

Assignment #12 (Choose any three of the following.)
   1. Describe the hobby of someone whom you know. Prepare
      an interesting classroom presentation of this interest, com-
      plete with illustrations. Find out how your friend happened
      to develop the hobby.
   2. How does the leisure time of your mother compare with
      that of your father? On the whole, do the women whom
      you know have more or less leisure than the men whom
      you know?
   3. Write a paper discussing family recreation in your home.
      How do games, the radio, and the automobile bring the
      family together? What other leisure-time activities do your
      family share? What influences separate the family in their
      recreation? How much of one's free time should be spent
      in family recreation? What are the advantages of recreation
      within your own family?
   4. Ask three of your friends to keep a record for one week of
      the amount they spend for commercialized amusement and
      recreation. Choose these friends so that together with your
      own record you will have the records of two boys and two
      girls. Analyze these expenditures and draw conclusions. Sub-
      mit the records and your study of them.
   5. Study family conversations in your home and write a paper
      discussing them. What kinds of things do you talk about as
      a family? Does everybody enter into the conversation?
   6. Many hobbies grow out of the activities found in successful
      homemaking. List some of these that will bring pleasure
      to friends and family.
   7. Describe your hobbies and tell some of the assets gained
      from them besides the fun you have derived. Can you think
      of some inexpensive leisure-time activities that your family
      would enjoy doing together?
   8. Collect at least ten different magazine advertisements which
      advocate uses for leisure time. How has commercial recrea-
      tion taken the place of more simple family activities in the
      past twenty-five years?
   9. Compare the personal values of being a spectator with
      those of participation. Use several different types of activity

to illustrate your opinions—athletics, music, dramatics, school citizenship projects, etc. What do we mean when we speak of "spectatoritus"?

10. Make a study of the use of leisure time by three people whom you know. One should be a married person. How much free time do these people have? What activities do they choose and are these activities related to their regular work? Do they gain real satisfaction from their leisure? How broadening are these activities?

11. Show how courses you have taken in high school may help you to a more worthy use of leisure time. Explain how certain courses lead directly to avocational interests. In what way has the recreational and social program of your high school helped you to develop new leisure-time activities? Which of these interests may be lifelong?

Panel Discussion of proposed leisure-time pursuits which may be enjoyed by a family of moderate income. Include such activities as going to the movies, games in the home, hiking, camping, hobbies, sports, reading and music.

D. *What is the family's responsibility toward children in the home?*
   1. Child training
      a. The baby
      b. The run-about child
      c. The school child
   2. Juvenile delinquency
   3. Adoption and foster children
      References:
      America's Children, Public Affairs Pamphlet, No. 47
      Bradbury and Amidon, *Learning to Care for Children*
      Geisel, John, *Personal Problems and Morale*
      Groves, Skinner and Swenson, *The Family and Its Relationships,* Unit 11
      Jordan, Ziller and Brown, *Home and Family*
      Assignment #13   (Choose either number 7 or number 8 and any two others.)
      1. Observe three babies ranging in age from the newborn to nine months. Watch the baby's activities during his eating, bathing, dressing, or free play periods. Write a few paragraphs about each baby, describing what it does and how the parents responded to its actions. What influence does treatment by the adult have on the baby's efforts to help with different activities?

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2. Record the speech of some little children. Do not let them know you are interested in what they are saying. Try to record some conversations, also. From your parents find out what early speech patterns you followed. Do adults ever prolong a child's period of "baby talk"? How?

3. Observe the play activities of some little children. What kinds of indoor and outdoor activities do they enjoy at different ages? What facility and equipment needs should be met? Do children like to fashion their own playthings from such articles as empty boxes, spools, etc.? Describe some toys made from such materials. How can you teach children to care for their play possessions? Base your answers on things you can remember about your own childhood.

4. Write a paper discussing the kind of stories enjoyed by the baby, the toddler, the preschool-age child and the youngster who is just beginning to read. Why do different types of stories appeal at different age levels? Discuss ownership of books by children, including kind to be owned, where kept, use of books, growth of the child's personal library, etc. Do you have any books which you treasured as a child? Tell a story to a group of small children and write up an account of your experience.

5. Show that you understand the meaning of the term "psychological weaning" by illustrating with examples of the process. How can we tell if a person, or if we ourselves, are weaned psychologically? What problems commonly arise when psychological independence has not increased proportionately with chronological age?

6. What problems arise when a new baby comes to a family where there are older children? If you have a younger brother or sister, record what you can remember about the baby's arrival. How old were you when the baby was born? Did you know it was coming? How did you feel about having a new brother or sister? Did you like or dislike doing things for the baby and what in particular did you do for it? When you have children of your own, what things would you do differently? What do we mean when we speak of "sibling rivalry"?

7. Find out all you can about juvenile delinquency in your community and county. Write a paper discussing the methods used to combat and meet this problem. (Include information on amount of delinquency, causes, types, treatment, juvenile courts and detention homes, probation officers, etc.)

8. Write a short biography of a foster child, telling how both the child and the foster home worked out a true family relationship.

Panel Discussion of child training in the home. Each speaker will consider a phase of child welfare such as health, education, play, social growth, spiritual training, etc.

SUMMARY OF RESPONSIBILITIES

1. Participate in class discussions and activities.
2. Prepare all assignments.
3. Read widely on the problem, covering each topic with notes. Hand in these notes.
4. Write a critical review of the family problems noted in one book you have read. Choose any listed in the bibliography in Groves, Skinner and Swenson, *The Family and Its Relationships,* or on the supplementary list.
5. Participate in one panel discussion.
6. Take tests and final examination.
7. Write a critical comment on the unit at the end of the study.

APPENDIX III

Sample Report Cards

AN EXPLANATION OF ITEMS EVALUATED FOR A REPORT TO PARENTS AND PUPILS — EUGENE, OREGON

Our present report card will serve as an aid to a more complete understanding of growth and progress in school. This explanation is distributed to pupils and parents as an aid in interpreting the items.

The evaluations are in *terms of growth* in understanding of the subject, in basic skills, and in effective citizenship.

We believe that an effective school citizen:

1. Displays understanding of the subject
   a. Acquires factual information necessary to solve problems,
   b. Develops the necessary skills pertinent to the subject area,
   c. Develops desirable attitudes in the subject area;
2. Expresses himself clearly in written form
   a. Spells correctly words in common usage,
   b. Writes legibly and neatly,
   c. Punctuates and capitalizes correctly,
   d. Chooses words which best express his meaning,
   e. Expresses his ideas in simple, clear language,
   f. Develops his ideas in an orderly pattern;
3. Expresses himself clearly in oral form
   a. Pronounces words correctly and enunciates clearly,
   b. Maintains good posture while speaking,
   c. Speaks interestingly and with a pleasing voice,
   d. Chooses words which best express his ideas,
   e. Speaks in a natural manner,
   f. Makes well-thought-out contributions to class discussions;
4. Reads widely and understandingly
   a. Likes to read,
   b. Masters new words and concepts as needed,
   c. Relates material read to his problems and experiences,
   d. Reads to enlarge his experiences and broaden his interests,
   e. Reads and interprets maps, charts, and graphs,
   f. Uses the reading skills appropriate for his purpose,
   g. Uses books and library resources efficiently;
5. Uses basic mathematical skills
   a. Is able to multiply, add, subtract, and divide accurately,
   b. Uses common standards of measure,
   c. Solves practical problems as they arise in life's situations,
   d. Senses number relationships;

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6. Does clear thinking
    a. Recognizes, defines, and analyzes problems,
    b. Uses materials presented in a variety of ways,
    c. Seeks reliable sources of information,
    d. Withholds judgment until he has examined many points of view,
    e. Interprets data accurately,
    f. Arrives at sound conclusions on the basis of evidence,
    g. Acts in accordance with his conclusions,
    h. Revises his conclusions on the basis of new evidence;
7. Displays self-reliance
    a. Follows directions and goes to work promptly,
    b. Plans and completes his work to the best of his ability,
    c. Concentrates on the job at hand.
    d. Provides himself with the necessary equipment,
    e. Cares for his own property and that of others;
8. Makes desirable personal adjustments
    a. Is aware of his own abilities and limitations,
    b. Meets social situations with ease,
    c. Makes the best possible personal appearance,
    d. Accepts praise and criticism in order to improve,
    e. Makes friends and feels secure with members of the group,
    f. Is interested in a wide variety of activities and experiences;
9. Coöperates with others
    a. Treats others and their ideas with respect and courtesy,
    b. Respects constituted authority,
    c. Selects leaders who are qualified,
    d. Adjusts his interests to the best interests of the group,
    e. Recognizes and carries out his share of responsibility,
    f. Meets his obligations promptly and to the best of his ability,
    g. Encourages others to take part in group activities;
10. Displays creative ability
    a. Demonstrates interest in the fine things of our culture,
    b. Shows creative initiative,
    c. Expresses his feelings with good taste,
    d. Expresses ideas in a creative and original manner;
11. Shows concern for the welfare of the group
    a. Is aware of the needs of other people,
    .b. Is concerned about the problems of others,
    c. Participates in the solution of social problems,
    d. Is sensitive to the ideals and motives of others,
    e. Considers the consequences of his actions in terms of the group.
12. Practices good physical and mental health (No specific items stated)

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REPORT CARD OF EUGENE PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Eugene High School
Eugene, Oregon

Name..

Subject... Grade..

School
Year 194............ - 194............

Periods
per week...

EXPLANATION OF MARKS

A—Excellent. This student is outstanding.

B—Highly Satisfactory. The work of this student is generally better than average.

C—Satisfactory. The work of this student is quite acceptable; not outstanding.

D—Below Average. The work of this student is noticeably weak.

F—Unsatisfactory. This student fails to meet minimum requirements.

No mark indicates one of the following: (1) the teacher is not sufficiently acquainted with the activities of the student to permit an evaluation, (2) a grade does not apply in this case, (3) the work is incomplete due to illness or late start.

	1	2	Sem	3	4	Sem
General Rating In This Subject						
Times Absent From This Class						
Times Tardy To This Class						

Room....................   Teacher..

The parent's signature indicates that the report has been inspected:

1st 9 weeks...

2nd 9 weeks..

3rd 9 weeks...

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This supplement to the general rating is made for the purpose of assisting the teacher in giving more complete guidance to the individual student, and also to supply to parents a more complete statement of the student's progress, growth and general achievement. The marks are estimates based upon observation and upon such tests as are available.

ACHIEVEMENT IN SUBJECT AREA

	1	2	3	4
12th Year Social Problems				
1. Understanding and interpreting the American heritage				
2. Understanding and interpreting trends in current affairs				
3. Participating in group planning and cooperative problem solving				
4. Understanding and participating in democratic processes as they operate in the school, community and nation				

GROWTH IN BASIC SKILLS AND DEMOCRATIC ATTITUDES

	1	2	3	4
1. Written expression				
2. Oral expression				
3. Reading				
4. Scientific attitude				
5. Self-direction				
6. Personal adjustment				
7. Cooperation with others				
8. Accuracy and neatness				
9. Creativeness				
10. Concern for the welfare of the group				

(Face of Card)

PASADENA JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL REPORT

Pupil's Name..School...

Quarter Ending...

Semester Ending..

Grade Level
and Subject...

Achievement in:		Fails to meet minimum requirements	Noticeably Weak	Satisfactory	Highly Satisfactory	Excellent
		F	D	C	B	A
Responsibility and Self-Direction	Qr.	....	....	....	....	....
	Sem.					
Relationships with Others	Qr.	....	....	....	....	....
	Sem.					
Skills, Understandings, and Appreciations in this Subject	Qr.	....	....	....	....	....
	Sem.					

....

....
(Teacher's Signature)

Parent Comment:

....
(Parent's Signature)

SEE BACK OF CARD FOR EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

The Pasadena Junior High Schools have as their general purpose the development in youth of the *characteristics* which we believe they must possess in order to be effective citizens in a democracy. Some of the characteristics which are more easily observed are listed below. A plus (+) before a statement indicates strength; a minus (−) indicates need for improvement.

I. *Responsibility and Self-Direction*

A responsible and self-directing student is one who increasingly:

    Plans and carries out his activities
    Does what he agrees to do
    Works independently
    Knows when and how to seek help
    Follows directions
    Takes care of property

    ....
    ....
    ....

II. *Relationships with Others*

A student who has good relationships with others increasingly:

    Works and plays well with others
    Respects the rights of others
    Leads or follows as needed
    Serves unselfishly

    ....
    ....
    ....

III. *Skills, Understandings, and Appreciations in this Subject*

A student who shows skills, understandings, and appreciations in this subject is one who increasingly

    Acquires a fund of reliable information
    Uses this information in new situations
    Expresses himself clearly and correctly
    Develops the skills necessary to accomplish the above

    ....
    ....
    ....

DAVID STARR JORDAN HIGH SCHOOL
LONG BEACH, CALIFORNIA
STUDENT PROGRESS REPORT

Name................................

Subject................................

Grade................................

Period................................

Date................................

Objectives:

	Quar.	Semes.
Self-Direction................		
Concern for others............		
Straight thinking.............		
Apprec. & Attitudes...........		
Knowledges, Skills............		
Composite Grade..............		
Attendance Mark..............	......%.....	......%.....

O = Unsatisfactory work

+ = Superior — College recommending

S = Satisfactory on evidence at hand.

Parents are encouraged to visit school, especially when report shows "D" or "F"

Poor attendance may result in failure or reduction of credit.

Parent (Guardian)................................

Parent (Guardian)................................

Teacher................................

Teacher................................

Teacher Conference Hour................................

To Parents:

   The David Starr Jordan High School has as its general purpose the development
in boys and girls of behavior characteristics which we believe they must possess in
order to be effective citizens in a democracy. Some of the desired behaviors are as
follows:

Self-Direction

Is regular and prompt in attendance.
Cares for materials and equipment.
Exercises initiative.
Accepts responsibilities.
Works independently.
Makes wise choices or decisions when not under supervision.
Plans and completes work promptly to the best of his ability.
Criticizes his own activities and seeks advice from competent sources.

Concern For Others

Permits others to work undisturbed.
Is concerned about local, national and world problems.
Participates in group discussion.
Realizes there must be law and order.
Considers the consequences of his actions.
Observes accepted rules of conduct.

Straight Thinking

Recognizes and defines his problems carefully.
Collects and selects information of sufficient quality and quantity to give an
   accurate picture.
Interprets information accurately.
Draws sound conclusions and applies them to new situations.
Uses logical arguments in reporting his ideas to others either orally or in writing.
Is learning to use the scientific method in thinking.

Appreciations and Attitudes

Is cooperative.
Is tolerant and impartial.
Is dependable, reliable, and honest.
Is concerned that right prevails.
Gives and takes constructive criticism.
Is respectful and courteous.
Appreciates the value of beauty, order, neatness in living.
Appreciates ability, efficiency and accuracy.
Is continuously learning to distinguish right from wrong.
Realizes the significance of contributions of men, groups and institutions to
   human welfare.
Feels the importance of democratic living.

Knowledges, Understandings, and Skills

Acquires a fund of reliable information.
Understands the meaning of important terms.
Strives to understand underlying principles.
Uses resources such as library, interviews, and trips effectively.
Is effective in such skills as reading, writing, speaking, listening, observing,
   and using numbers.

Note: Each department will grade those knowledges, understandings, and skills
   which apply to it alone.

                    John W. Wilson
                              Principal

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